

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 24, 1873.

The Week.

THE *Herald* correspondent telegraphs news from Vienna, which the State Department does not contradict, and indeed acknowledges to be in part true, that some of the American Commissioners have purchased their places for small sums. We are told there is to be a "rigid enquiry," but we suppose this will be small consolation to the decent people of the country, on which this horrible succession of American swindles, jobs, frauds, and rascalities is bringing shame and disgrace. The American Minister in London stands before foreign society tainted with complicity in putting a fraudulent mining scheme on the London market; General Fremont—"Fremont so true" of 1856, "The Pathfinder of the Rocky Mountains"—has been convicted and sentenced to five years' imprisonment by the French courts for complicity in a gigantic fraud, by which hundreds of poor French peasants were induced to buy worthless bonds of a bogus Texan railroad on the strength of a forged certificate. The present Vice-President of the Union and his predecessor have been convicted at least of public equivocation, and the majority of the members of the last Congress deliberately walked off with a large sum of public money to which they were not entitled, and even those who voted against the scheme are actually pocketing the plunder and defying the popular indignation. No wonder that the smaller fry are found buying their places, and generally cozening and cheating. When is this state of things to end? most people are asking; but as yet there is no articulate reply.

The President has, it is reported, appointed Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, of this city, to succeed Mr. Curtis, and Mr. Shellabarger, of Ohio, to succeed Mr. Medill, in the Civil-Service Commission. If this is true, a better selection than Mr. Eaton could hardly have been made; we wish as much could be said of Mr. Shellabarger, who has been a little too deep in "politics" to have much of the reforming spirit left in him. Mr. Curtis's place was first proffered to Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted, who, however, felt obliged to decline it, owing to the absorption of his time by his present duties. If the President has picked out Mr. Eaton, he undoubtedly furnishes strong proof of his sincerity; but, as we have often said before, nothing will be complete proof but the use of his power in such manner as to carry out the spirit of the rules in those matters to which they do not strictly apply as well as in those matters to which they do. There may be excuses for the failure to appoint Benedict, or for the failure to extend the operation of the rules thus far to any city but New York, or even for apologizing to members of Congress for appointing postmasters in their absence; but there is and can be no excuse for reappointing Casey at New Orleans, or for selecting the Rev. Dr. Newman and Mr. R. J. Hinton as "inspectors of consulates," neither of them knowing anything more about consulates than about chemistry. Just now, in fact, the popular faith in General Grant's good faith is languid; the selection of Mr. Eaton will do something to revive it; but then we must wait to see whether Mr. Eaton's name is used to cover continual "suspensions" or aberrations, or to give real strength to the machinery of reform.

Within the past week there has been savage fighting for the possession of the Lava Beds between the United States troops under General Gillem and the Modocs. A gang of Warm Spring Indians are now among those enlisted for the attack on Captain Jack, and they do their fighting after the Indian fashion. "Scar-faced Charley" was found wounded, in a cave, with a squaw. The squaw was at once turned over to the captors, and Scar-faced Charley's scalp taken. "Our side," the report from which we take these facts

states, "has now five scalps in this fight." As we write, there is some doubt whether the Indians are still in the Lava Beds or whether they have escaped; but it seems clear that they have lost a good many men, and have been obliged to abandon their original position, if such desultory fighting as this can ever be said to have had one. Meantime, two of the worst bands of the Apaches have come in and surrendered to General Crook in Arizona.

There has been another horrible massacre, in Louisiana, at a place called Colfax, in Grant Parish, even worse than the New Orleans massacre of 1866, and a not unnatural consequence of the position in which Congress left the dispute between the two factions over the government of the State. The committee of the Senate made it pretty clear in their report that the Kelloggites who were in possession of the government were usurpers; but, as the Administration at Washington had recognized them, and refused to repudiate them unless Congress passed a bill or resolution to that effect, it made no change in its policy. Consequently, the people of the State are left divided into two bodies, one of which has the authority of the Committee of the Senate for believing that its rights under the election have been disregarded, and the other the authority of the Federal Government for believing that its rule cannot be shaken. A state of things better fitted to produce explosions of violence, particularly in view of the feeling of hostility prevailing between blacks and whites all over the cotton States, could hardly be imagined. Accordingly, when two persons, one black and the other white, claim the office of Sheriff in Grant Parish, the black, far from appealing to the court, takes possession of the court-house with a band of armed followers of his own color, South American fashion, throws up a rude entrenchment round the building, and bids his white competitor come on, hoping, as he has since confessed, that he would be able to hold out till the row drew the Federal troops to his assistance. Whereupon the white, nothing loth, collects his followers also, and besieges his rival, and, as a last resource, fires the court-house, and his men shoot the garrison down as they try to escape from the flames, until 150 have been slaughtered, with the loss of one white man killed and one wounded. There is now a great outcry for the punishment of these "demons," but there was no outcry, or at least no adequate outcry, over the disgraceful connivance at Washington at the state of things which has converted Louisiana into a South American republic, and destroyed all confidence on the part of all classes, not only in the law, but in a popular vote which produces the law. How can any people put any confidence in anything but rifles who see men like Casey and Packard not only kept in office, but put back into office when their term has expired; and the majority in Congress refusing to do their duty in the settlement of the local difference, and going calmly home with their pockets full of stolen money, without one word of rebuke or disapproval from the President?

Mr. Adams's *éloge* of the late William H. Seward, delivered last Friday at Albany, has great merits as a funeral oration, and is a valuable addition to the history of the country. We cannot attempt, in the limits of a paragraph, to give a complete analysis of it, but, in brief, the picture given of Mr. Seward is that of a great statesman. Early foreseeing that slavery was to be the most important question in politics in his time, and having developed a philosophical theory of government in which the perpetuation of slavery found no place, he threw himself heart and soul into the anti-slavery camp, where he remained fighting for the cause till its triumph. In Mr. Lincoln's cabinet, his was the leading mind, and it was his firmness in withstanding the popular clamor at the time of the Trent affair that in reality saved the nation from dissolution—inasmuch as the retention of Mason and Slidell would undoubtedly have resulted in an unsuccessful war with the combined forces of England

and the Confederacy. He receives great praise, also, from Mr. Adams for his admirable organization of the diplomatic service during Lincoln's Administration, and his adhesion to Johnson is explained as having been caused by his desire to carry out the policy of reconstruction already begun under his first chief. His failure to do so was his misfortune, not his fault. In regard to the nomination of Lincoln, Mr. Adams thinks that Seward's behavior at the time was marked by unparalleled magnanimity. This portrait is very different both from the popular view and from the view taken by the anti-slavery Radicals. Mr. Adams's oration is all the better because of this difference, and because we know, what in the case of most oratorical efforts of the day we never do know, that the orator means exactly what he says. The "occasion" seems to have been a success. Among the audience were a number of distinguished people; those "chiefly interested" would appear from the list to have been Frederick Douglass and Millard Fillmore.

The Phelps-Dodge affair has taken a most singular turn. Judge Noah Davis, it will be remembered, alleged, in the most explicit manner, that he, who was District Attorney when the charges were made against the firm, was fully satisfied that the intent to defraud the Government never entered their heads, and that, therefore, although their infractions of the law made a million dollars' worth of property—or, in other words, all goods described in the invoices with regard to which the infractions occurred—liable to forfeiture, he suggested that the firm should pay, in settlement, only \$260,000; or, in other words, only the value of the goods on which the full duty was not paid; and this although, according to his own showing, the Government had only lost \$3,000; and on this basis a settlement has actually been made. But, as the *World* has pointed out, infractions of the revenue law must be made "knowingly," and with intent to defraud, in order to render an importer liable to any penalty at all. According to the statement of the law-officer of the Government, therefore, the Dodges had committed no legal any more than moral offence, and had incurred no liability, small or great, beyond their payment of \$3,000. So that when he recommended them to pay \$260,000, he recommended them to submit to a piece of pure extortion to the amount of \$257,000, the greater part of which would be divided between the rascally clerk who informed against them, the District Attorney, the Collector, and the Treasury detective. This of course places the Treasury in a very awkward position, and accordingly Mr. Boutwell comes out with a flat denial that he ever agreed to any compromise as long as the firm made formal protestation of their innocence, and that it was only when they withdrew this that he agreed to the settlement. But the question still remains, why, if he believed the firm guilty, did he accept one-quarter of the amount to which, if the firm was really guilty, the Government was entitled? There appears little doubt that the firm was guilty of a great indiscretion in agreeing to compromise at all, and in not publishing their statement months ago; but it is to be said in their defence, as we think it is easy enough to show, that no firm, however rich or powerful, can fight the Government with heart or hope under the detective system with which the Treasury is now armed, and which enables a gang of knavish politicians to work the ruin of any house by mere accusation.

The New York Charter passed the Assembly as amended by the Senate, and though by no means so bad as it was feared it would be when the Custom-house publicists framed it, yet as it is hardly likely to stand more than a year or two, it is mainly interesting as a specimen of low political "work." It is, of course, nominally a "reform charter," but, as its promoters frankly avowed, the only "reform" they have, or ever had, in their minds is one which should give all the offices to the Republicans. They have not been able to carry out all their designs. The appointing power, instead of being given to the Board of Aldermen, leaving the Mayor only the right of confirmation, as they intended, is given to the Mayor, leaving the confirmation to the Aldermen. The Board of Assistant Aldermen,

which they acknowledge to be useless, they order to be abolished, but, characteristically enough, not until 1875, having uses of their own for it in the interval. We have often called attention to the disgraceful intrigue by which they got Mayor Hall, on the eve of his going out of office, to appoint certain creatures of their own to several important offices for terms of five years. To prevent the frustration of this scheme, the new charter directed the retention of these and other persons in office; thus, as the *Evening Post* pointed out, making the legislature exercise the executive power of appointment, in an act purporting simply to supply a formal organization to a municipal corporation. Among the other remarkable persons retained in office is "Hank" Smith, the notorious police commissioner, on whom the *Times* used to publish five abusive articles per week in 1872, and whose crimes and rascalities it charged to the account of Mr. Greeley. This awful "scoundrel," however, is now in high favor with the Ring. They have actually retained him in office by special legislation. The charter also cuts down the salaries of the judges by nearly \$7,000, a provision which seems plainly unconstitutional, and which we trust the Governor will maturely consider. The members of every Ring, and indeed all politicians, seem to have an instinctive hatred of an upright bench, somewhat like the loathing of rats for a terrier. From first to last, no member of the Ring, or any of their agents in the Legislature, made the slightest pretence that they were consulting the interests of the city or the wishes of its people. They openly avowed that they were serving "the party," and nothing else—a piece of candor which does them much credit. They also dealt very characteristically with a bill, prepared by Mr. D. B. Eaton, abolishing the election of the police justices, and giving the appointment of these officers to the judges of the Superior Court and the Mayor. As this would have taken the offices out of the category of "spoils," they adroitly reserved the appointment for the Mayor and Aldermen, which, if it does not secure it for "the party," at least gives the managers what they call "a chance."

Some enterprising paper ought to publish, in the form of a pamphlet, the "testimony," as it is called, given by Mr. Thomas G. Shearman before the Erie Investigating Committee. On Saturday, he came before the Committee, and once more revealed the character of Attorney-General Barlow, who seems, on the whole, to be one of the most inscrutable corruptionists now living. Mr. Shearman says that in 1872 he told J. H. Comer that he "believed" that a certain contract, made by Fisk with Belden & Hays, was made for the benefit of General Barlow; that he got this information from Fisk, Gould, and Belden, and several other persons whose names he declined to give, as they were his clients; that on one occasion Gould said he "had fixed him," or "would fix him"; that Simon Stevens told him (Shearman) that at one time General Barlow wrote a letter to General Sickles demanding a large sum of money—he thought \$100,000. To be perfectly accurate, however, Mr. Shearman added that the statement was not made by Stevens, but by David Dudley Field, in the presence of Stevens, who assented to it by remaining completely silent. He further "understood" from Stevens that he (Stevens) had learned of money coming to General Barlow from the hands of Mr. Wheeler H. Peckham, and he said that Stevens also "intimated" that he knew what became of the \$1,500 paid to Speaker Smith. Better than this even, Watson, the new president of the road, had told Shearman that "a friend of General Barlow" had begged on his behalf the very \$10,000 he afterwards declined taking. "Witness is further willing to swear," as the formula goes, that he has publicly charged General Barlow with secret affiliations with no less a person than Judge Barnard. The next day explicit denials were made by Watson, Peckham, and Stevens—so that the whole damnable story may now be considered confirmed. The *Tribune* says, *apropos* of all this, "that there is a plain question of veracity at issue between Mr. Shearman and the Attorney-General." There is "a plain question at issue" between these gentlemen, but it is certainly not one of veracity. What remains to be ascertained is the precise degree of somebody's

mendacity. There has evidently been a great deal of what the *Tribune* calls "architectural lying" in the matter, but not by Barlow, or Watson, or Peckham, or Stevens.

The strikes predicted some weeks ago are now going on, though in a rather half-hearted way. They are marked by the usual features—a convention to demand the enforcement of the eight-hour law, followed by interviews between the leading agitators and the local politicians; several assaults on men who have taken the places of the strikers—one extremely brutal, resulting in death and two arrests for murder; and the turning out of the police to protect the new men. The places of the men on strike in the works of the New York Gas Company have been supplied by Italians, and as to the present condition of the company all sorts of conflicting rumors are afloat. One is, that the old men are signing petitions to be taken back; another, that the New York Company have made a connection with the Manhattan Company, and is really getting a large part of its supply from the latter. It is also said that the Italians work very well; while, on the other side, the story is that they cannot stand the work. Nothing has yet occurred at all to be compared in gravity with the building strikes of last year.

One of the most significant features of those strikes was the formation of an Employers' Committee, for the purpose of ascertaining the possibility of making combinations of capitalists to resist the demands of labor, like the combinations made by labor to resist the encroachments of capital. Of course, such combinations are just as possible in one case as in the other; the entire capital of a State or a country, or indeed of the world, employed in a particular industry, might form a union for the purpose of holding out against strikes, and could do it all the more easily, as it could afford to waste more time and money in the struggle. Something of this kind, it seems, is already organized in the boot and shoe trade for the purpose of resisting the Crispins—one of the most powerful trade-unions in the country. The organization is called the "Employers' Protective Association." In Cincinnati last Friday, a Crispin committee called on Mr. Kilsheimer, of the firm of Kilsheimer & Sondheimer, shoe manufacturers, and asked Mr. Kilsheimer whether he belonged to this association, and, on his telling them that he did not, he was requested to sign a paper stating the fact, and promising never to belong to such an association. This, he said, he was willing to do, provided they would sign a similar paper promising never to molest him in his business, and to belong to no organization interfering in the relations between employer and employed. This, however, was trifling with a grave subject, and his hands immediately struck. Meantime, co-operation makes small progress. Herbert Spencer, we observe, considers the co-operative experiment, judged by its results, a failure, though he is a firm believer in its ultimate success. He thinks that the laboring class do not at present show that spirit of fairness and sense of justice which is its necessary basis; and their treatment of their own fellows in their labor organizations shows clearly what a very poor article "workingman morality," like all class morality, is.

The Rev. John J. Keane, of St. Patrick's Church, Washington, writes to the *Catholic Review* that the *Nation's* statement that Patrick O'Brien's commutation was granted by the President "on the prayer of the Catholic clergy," is a "baseless falsehood," and asserts that "no Catholic clergyman had anything to do with the commutation." We shall only say that if Father Rocafort, of St. Aloysius' in the same city, will assert that he did not intercede for O'Brien, whether with the President, or with anybody having, or supposed to have, influence with the President, he will come nearer settling the matter than Father Keane has done. Father Keane refers us to Mr. Ben Butler for the real truth of the affair, but this must be a joke. The Massachusetts moralist, we believe, denies all connection with the commutation.

The resignation of the Presidency of the French Assembly by M. Grévy is likely to prove an important advantage to the Republicans in the Chamber, as there is perhaps not one of them who unites so much devotion to the cause to so much ability and weight of character, and he has, of course, for all practical purposes, been *hors de combat* as long as he was in the chair. Beyond this, the relative positions of the various parties or factions seem little changed. But a measure lately introduced, and which commands general support, proposing to make voting at elections compulsory, is perhaps the most valuable illustration of the peculiar condition of French politics which has been supplied for a long time. The total absence of interest in politics generally on the part of the great body of the French people, is perhaps the greatest difficulty in the way of carrying on a constitutional government, and it has produced one result during the last two years which curiously affects the state of parties. The one political duty which the average French elector feels bound to perform—or rather the one use he feels bound to make of his vote—is to support the Government for the time being, opposition to the Government being, in his eyes, and for obvious reasons, necessarily revolutionary in its character and aims. Therefore, when the prefect and the maire call him to the polls, he goes and votes the Government ticket, no matter on what subject, as the only way known to him of securing peace and tranquillity, or, as he calls it, "order." It follows from this that the Government can always, or almost always, command a majority; and when, therefore, it was proposed last year to submit the question of a republic or a monarchy, to "the people," the Right strongly resisted it, because M. Thiers had given in his adhesion to the Republic. On the other hand, when, as in some of the elections last fall, the Government abstains from all interference, the bulk of the electors think the affair is of no consequence, and do not vote, so that the result gives no indication of the state of public feeling. To remedy this, therefore, it is proposed to extract public opinion from the voters by the threat of fine and imprisonment. The Left support the measure on general principles, and the Right because it seems likely to ensure them good majorities. But the Right has been, on the whole, losing ground for some time back. It was the insubordination and obstreperousness of some of its leading members which led to M. Grévy's resignation, and they have committed the folly of quarrelling with the Government for expelling Prince Napoleon from France—a matter on which their own "record" is bad.

The incident which led to M. Grévy's resignation was in itself significant. The Government is greatly troubled to know what to do with the city of Lyons, which is and has been a focus of insurrectionary sentiment ever since the first Revolution. It has revolted against all governments in turn; during the German war, it virtually established its independence, proposed to put itself at the head of a new confederation, to be called the "Ligue du Midi," and amused itself by overturning the rulers of its own choice about once a week. Moreover, it is profoundly Communitic. The swarm of workmen who compose the bulk of its population are opposed to both labor and capital, to riches and poverty, and in fact to nearly every social arrangement yet tried by man, and have never yet succeeded in making a clear statement of what they want. Keeping Lyons quiet is therefore one of the most puzzling tasks of every French administration. A committee of the Assembly containing a majority of members of the Right has, therefore, reported strongly in favor of a Government scheme for electing the Municipal Council by districts instead of on a general ticket, so as to divide or weaken the socialistic element, and one of the representatives of the city stigmatized their report as "bagage," or bosh, which the Marquis de Gramont, on behalf of the Right, denounced as an "impertinence," for which he was called to order by M. Grévy, whereupon the Right, instead of submitting, rose at M. Grévy with shouts and gesticulation, and he left the chair in disgust, and refused to come back.

THE SUPREME COURT RIGHTING ITSELF.

THE Supreme Court has recently delivered two opinions, giving an able and clear construction to the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and, incidentally, to the Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States—opinions which are important as showing that the Court is recovering from the war fever, and is getting ready to abandon sentimental canons of construction. In the principal case there is, indeed, this drawback—that it was rendered by a divided bench; but no impartial lawyer, we fancy, will hesitate to say that the strength of the Court, as well as of the argument, was on the side of the majority.* In order to understand the scope of the decisions, it is necessary to trace the suits in which they have been rendered to their origin.

On the 8th of March, 1869, the Legislature of Louisiana, for the ostensible purpose of localizing a business which, as then carried on, was dangerous to the health of the inhabitants of New Orleans during part of the year, passed an act incorporating the Crescent City Live Stock Landing and Slaughter-House Company, and giving this company a monopoly of the business for twenty-five years within a certain district. The act of incorporation directed the discontinuance of all other yards, slaughter-houses, and stock-landings, and the new company were granted the right to levy a limited toll on all cattle slaughtered at their shambles. The grant of this monopoly naturally caused great dissatisfaction among the butchers of New Orleans, and they at once cried "Ring," and went into the courts for relief. Whether the cry of "Ring" was founded in fact we have no means of knowing, as the question of corrupt motives could not be examined by the courts. The Supreme Court of Louisiana sustained the monopoly, and the butchers took their case into the courts of the United States, and asked for relief, first, on the general ground that the company was an odious monopoly, an imposition on the great body of the community of New Orleans, and particularly on the butchers of that city; second, that whether it was odious and an imposition or not, it was certainly a monopoly, and that no State legislature could grant a monopoly; third, that the act of incorporation violated the Constitution of the United States by creating an "involuntary servitude" forbidden by the Thirteenth Amendment; fourth, that it "abridged the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States," "denied" to the plaintiffs "the equal protection of the laws," and "deprived them of their property without due process of law," contrary to the provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment. The United States Circuit Court (Judges Bradley and Woods) decided the monopoly to be unconstitutional under the Fourteenth Amendment, on the ground that, although it might be difficult to define the "privileges" which a State is forbidden to abridge, "we may safely say that there is no more sacred right of citizenship than the right to pursue unmolested a lawful employment in a lawful manner. It is nothing more nor less than the 'SACRED RIGHT OF LABOR.'" (The capitals are Judge Bradley's.) The act incorporating this company, interfering with the butchers' and live-stock men's sacred right of labor, was unconstitutional and void. We called attention to this decision at the time it was rendered (see *Nation*, No. 283, Dec. 1, 1870), for it seemed to us then, and we are gratified at being able to infer from the decision of the Supreme Court that we were right, that it was very broad, and that its effect would be to strike a blow, "not only at a New Orleans slaughter-house company, but at the existence of almost every franchise in the United States."

The Supreme Court has now decided, first, that it is not by any means obvious that the monopoly is "odious," or an "imposition," because it may very well be beneficial to the health of the city; second, that the mere fact that it is a monopoly is not against it, because both the Parliament of Great Britain and the legislatures of this country have "from time immemorial" exercised the power of creating monopolies and granting exclusive privileges. Then, approaching the subject of the Amendments, the Court gives

what we may hope and believe to be a final and authoritative interpretation of the new articles adopted since the close of the war, saying, at the outset, that they must be construed together, and in the light of the historical facts which led to their adoption. Their interpretation and construction is this. The Thirteenth Amendment means, in the first place, that not only slavery as popularly understood, but all kinds of involuntary servitude, such as peonage, servile apprenticeship, or serfdom, are prohibited. Under these circumstances, the Court intimates pretty broadly that the article in question can have, in the mind of a sensible person, no sort of bearing on the case at bar.

In the second place, the process of reconstruction undertaken under Johnson developed the fact that in some of the States, notwithstanding the formal recognition of the new régime of freedom, the condition of the slave-race would, unless further protected by the Federal Government, "be almost as bad as it was before":

"Among the first acts of legislation adopted by several of these States in the legislative bodies which claimed to be in their normal relations with the Federal Government, were laws which imposed upon the colored race onerous disabilities and burdens, and curtailed their rights in the pursuit of life, liberty, and property to such an extent that their freedom was of little value, while they had lost the protection which they had received from their former owners from motives both of interest and humanity. They were in some States forbidden to appear in the towns in any other character than menial servants. They were required to reside on and cultivate the soil without the right to purchase or own it. They were excluded from many occupations of gain, and were not permitted to give testimony in the courts in any case where a white man was a party. It was said that their lives were at the mercy of bad men, either because the laws for their protection were insufficient, or were not enforced."

These circumstances led Congress to pass the Fourteenth Amendment, and to require its adoption by the States lately in insurrection:

"All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States. Nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

Finally, to make the enfranchisement of the negroes perfectly secure, the Fifteenth Amendment was passed, giving them the right of suffrage. Taking all the amendments in connection, we see that they had but one purpose—the absolute abolition of slavery, and the elevation of the negro to an equality with the white citizen, and of course they must be construed in the light of this historical fact.

Coming now to the discussion in detail of the Fourteenth Amendment, the Court says that the first clause relating to citizenship has only this effect—to make the negroes citizens of the United States; that it does not destroy, but, on the contrary, continues and keeps alive the distinction between citizens of States and citizens of the United States. "Not only may a man be a citizen of the United States without being a citizen of a State, but an important element is necessary to convert the former into the latter. He must reside within the State to make him a citizen of it." We may suggest, as an example of such a citizenship, the case of a foreigner who becomes naturalized in the United States, and then acquires a residence or domicile, without denaturalizing himself, in Havana or Mexico. He would not be a resident of any State, but he would still be a citizen of the United States. It is only the "privileges and immunities" of citizens of the United States, then, which States are prohibited by the Fourteenth Amendment from "abridging," and "if there is a difference between the privileges and immunities belonging to a citizen of the United States as such, and those belonging to the citizen of a State as such, the latter must rest for their security and protection where they have heretofore rested."

The Court then proceeds to enquire what the words "privilege and immunities" are which the butchers allege to have been "abridged," and decides that they are nothing more nor less than those mentioned in the original Articles of Confederation, and in the second section of the fourth article of the Constitution,

* The dissenting minority was composed of the Chief-Justice and Justices Swayne and Field, as well as Justice Bradley, who delivered the opinion in the Circuit Court.

"the citizens of each State shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens of the several States." Precisely what these privileges and immunities are in detail the Supreme Court declines to explain, apparently not for the same reason which once led Mr. Cushing, when Attorney-General, to say that "it is difficult to explain what this section means, if indeed it means anything" (Ops. of Attorney-Generals, vol. viii. p. 302), but they decide that the phrase means in a general way "civil rights," and it was these "civil rights" on which the argument of the butchers was founded. Their argument, therefore, amounted to this, that the civil rights of the citizens of the various States which were formerly protected by the State governments are, since the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment, under the protection of the United States—a conclusion which would put an end to federal government, do away with State laws, courts, and constitutions, and throw pretty much the entire business of the country into the hands of Congress and the officials of the United States. Not only would these rights be "subject to the control of Congress," whenever in

"its discretion any of them are supposed to be abridged by State legislation, but that body may also pass laws in advance, limiting and restricting the exercise of legislative power by the States in their most ordinary and usual functions, as in its judgment or discretion it may think proper on all such subjects. And still further, such a construction, followed by the reversal of the judgments of the Supreme Court of Louisiana in these cases, would constitute this Court a perpetual censor upon all legislation of the States on the civil rights of its own citizens, with authority to nullify such as it did not approve as consistent with those rights as they existed at the time of the adoption of this Amendment."

This monstrous conclusion the Court refuses to adopt. It then goes on to give one or two instances of what are the "privileges and immunities" of citizens of the United States which are placed under the special care of the Federal Constitution by the Fourteenth Amendment, and mentions the right of citizens to demand the care and protection of the Federal Government when on the high seas or within foreign jurisdiction; the right to use the navigable waters of the United States; the right (conferred by this very Fourteenth Amendment) to acquire State citizenship by residence. But the Court thinks it useless to pursue this branch of the enquiry, since it is "of opinion that the rights claimed by these plaintiffs in error, even if they exist, are not privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States within the meaning of the clause of the Fourteenth Amendment under consideration." Of the other clauses of the Amendment, about "due process of law" and "the equal protection of the laws," the Court makes short work, saying, in conclusion, that there is no purpose apparent in the three amendments of changing the relations of the States and of the Federal Government:

"Under the pressure of all the excited feeling growing out of the war, our statesmen have still believed that the existence of the States, with their original powers for domestic and local government, including the regulation of civil rights—the rights of person and of property—was essential to the perfect working of our complex form of government."

The other case to which we have referred was that of Mrs. Myra Bradwell, a Chicago lawyer, wife of another Chicago lawyer, and editor of the *Chicago Legal News*; of course a firm believer in the cause of woman. This lady, in pondering the additions made to the Constitution of the United States by the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments, came to a conclusion somewhat different from that reached by the New Orleans butchers, but interesting as showing the effect produced by legal study on the female mind. Mrs. Bradwell having applied to the Supreme Court of Illinois for a license as a practising lawyer, was refused her petition, on the ground that under the State Constitution only men could be lawyers. She immediately appealed her case to the Supreme Court at Washington, arguing that the decision of the Illinois judges established "involuntary servitude," abridged her "privileges and immunities," etc., etc. It is a rather ludicrous illustration of the character of the woman movement, that a prominent female agitator should have seized the opportunity to prove the fitness of her sex for professional life by taking for her first important case one which she must have known the court would decide against her, unless she either supposed

that they were likely to be influenced by personal solicitation and clamor, or else that they were all gone crazy. The head-notes of the decision of the Court in these two cases might read in this way:

Held, that the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States, abolishing negro slavery and the power of the States to make distinctions or discriminations between the civil rights of negroes and whites, do not restrict the right of States to regulate the slaughtering of cattle within their limits, nor abolish the jurisdiction of State governments over their citizens, and transfer it to the United States, nor entitle female citizens of the United States, as such, to practise law in State courts.

A PARTY WITHOUT NEWSPAPERS.

THE disaster which befell the Liberal movement last year, followed by the decisive defeat at the polls of the Liberal-Democratic combination, certainly does not betoken at this time a successful reorganization of parties. The naturally narrow and proscriptive nature of the Administration leaders in the Senate led them to improve the occasion by reading such men as Senators Trumbull and Schurz out of the party, in the manifest belief that no one would again dare to indulge in "desertion," and that party discipline could be enforced on all persons, whether leaders or rank and file. The outlook has not been a promising one for rational improvement in the affairs of government, and the Liberal disaster has seemed a pretty effectual dam in the current of reform. If a new move had to be made on the political chess-board immediately, it would undoubtedly be a failure; but in this country a great deal can happen politically in three years, and there are certain indications now that the current is again moving. Of this latter fact the *Washington Republican*, an organ of the Administration, has just narrated unconsciously some most conclusive evidence. It seems that Mr. Schofield, the member from Pennsylvania, has been "interviewed," and, among other things, has said that the daily press rules the country, and that no party can stand against it; that it cannot be resisted on a great issue except for a short time and at enormous expense; and that in the last campaign it was only "by prodigious efforts with speeches and public documents that we succeeded in carrying the election against a powerful press syndicate." "But," adds Mr. Schofield, "we can't afford to keep up the effort, and they can. The *New York Tribune*, *Cincinnati Commercial*, *Louisville Courier-Journal*, *Chicago Tribune*, and *St. Louis Republican*—only five papers—were able to put the whole Republican party to its trumps."

Commenting upon these utterances of Mr. Schofield, the *Washington organ* says:

"One of the greatest dangers, in our opinion, that threatens the Republican party at the present time is the loss of its newspapers. In whatever direction we turn, we find that the newspapers that formerly stood by and sustained the party have either assumed an attitude of hostility or are cold and indifferent toward it. The party could easily afford to lose some of the journals above-mentioned. The *Tribune* is, to be sure, a severe loss to the party, one which thus far has not been supplied, and is not likely to be. The *Times* had the chance to be all to the Republican party that the old *Tribune* was, but it missed the opportunity. The success that attended it in the late campaign was entirely fortuitous."

"The party can win against these journals in future campaigns as it won in the last one. But there is no use in denying that other journals of lesser influence and reputation are following their example and arraying themselves in hostility against the party. We are not advocates of strict party discipline, either so far as the public journals or party nominations are concerned. On the contrary, we believe in a very wide latitude of opinion and of action; but the newspaper symptoms at the present time indicate something more than the mere waywardness of individual caprice and capriciousness. The fact is, the Republican party has not acted as it should have acted towards its newspapers during the last couple of years. Only last session of Congress, it passed a law abolishing the exchange system, for that will be the practical effect of it so far as the poorer papers are concerned. There never was a more fatal blunder committed by the Republican party. When the newspapers are compelled to pay postage upon their exchanges, they will naturally only take those of the widest circulation. The smaller papers will be entirely ignored, and the journals that are now in opposition to the Republican party will have a greater indirect influence than they have at present. It is plain to any one who even pays the slightest attention to the subject, that the Republican party is losing its newspapers day by day, and for the most obvious reasons in the world."

It is apparent that by the term "Republican party" the Administration editor means the party managers; and that his idea of

keeping newspapers is very much like other men's idea of keeping horses; viz., by buying them and then providing them with the necessary quantity of provender. It is well enough known, however, that the great papers of the country could not afford to sell themselves for all the pay and patronage that the party managers have at their disposal, and that when such papers change their course, and steadfastly and successfully pursue it, the new course indicates the changed convictions of their readers. Newspapers help people to form opinions, but they are also one of the surest indicators of what people think. Messrs. Morton and Conkling have declared that they can get on without "deserters"; can they also get on without newspapers? They have said pretty emphatically that they are opposed to reform. Where will they be politically when the readers of all these papers have determined that there shall be progress and improvement in the administration of our government?

The political view in America, in fact, discloses an extraordinary paradox, in this, that, with the most representative government in the world, no people in the world are at this time so grossly misrepresented by their rulers. We say the most representative government in the world, because the principle of representation permeates every part of the system. Constitutional conventions for founding the organic law; legislatures for enacting statutes; boards of supervisors for county affairs; common councils for city and village ordinances; the upper as well as the lower house of every legislative assembly, all are representative; so that there is nothing established in the way of an enactment in this country, from the framework of government to a police regulation against throwing dirty water in a gutter, which is not directly done by the representatives of the people. It is also the most representative government on earth in the quick facilities it gives for changes in representation. In only one legislative body do the members hold office so long as the members of the House of Commons, and in it there is a peculiar facility for change which the House of Commons does not possess. In the English body, the election being over, the House remains the same until another election comes to call together a new House; but in the Senate, one-third of the members go out of office every second year, and a fresh representation comes or is liable to come in. What with Congressional elections, State elections, town and city elections, the political society of this country seems to be in a constant state of fermentation, in which the representative particles are always coming to the surface. Nevertheless, with all these means at hand by which society, without fear or restraint, can make its wishes known in a single year, and change the character of its legislative assemblies in not more than two years, its honest wishes are most effectually thwarted by the persons theoretically chosen to give those wishes legal effect. And it is pretty much the same whether we look at the State or the Federal Government—at Albany, or Harrisburg, or Washington.

The members of the Republican party belong largely to the intelligent classes of society, are neither weak nor apathetic, constant readers of newspapers, and familiar with all the evils of the time. They have given stronger evidences of their independence of party leaders than any party that ever existed, cutting loose from Mr. Seward and Mr. Chase, from Mr. Sumner and Mr. Greeley, with a decided hand, at the moment when those gentlemen began to lead in a direction that was not approved. It would therefore seem to a stranger the easiest thing in the world for such men to go to the polls and vote against the managers of their party. But the question then arises, for whom shall they vote? and it is this which is the problem of the situation.

Hardly had the war ended when the Northern leaders of the Democratic party resorted to their old trick of getting the South into hot water. In this they succeeded so well that in a few months they destroyed all confidence at the North in the professed sincerity of the South, and ended in bringing down upon the unhappy Southerners fresh woes in the form of military and carpet-bag governments. During these years the loyal voters of the North felt that they could not assume the risk of confiding the grave issues of the

war to Democratic management, and they have given a remarkable example to the world of a people who, knowing the value of money and the grievance of excessive taxation, and who are moreover too devoted to the pursuit of wealth, nevertheless resolutely consented to be cheated and robbed by their public servants rather than imperil the newly-acquired rights of the ignorant and poor and uninfluential freedmen. It was this settled conviction in the public mind which compelled the Democratic managers to forego last year even a platform of their own.

At present the conviction is rapidly gaining ground that the freedmen have learnt enough of the political ways of white men to be able to take care of themselves. But now a new cloud looms up in the Republican mind, in consequence of the peculiar materials and management and history of the opposite party. The Democratic party is made up largely of the two extremes of great cities—of a few gentlemen of fortune and of the ignorant and degraded populace—the "dangerous classes" of European society. These extremes coalesce; the rich set because of their instinctive love of things as they are, the ignorant because of their instinctive hatred for things as they should be. The Democratic party is also a party without a policy—a party of mere negation, which never has anything positive to offer, which was opposed to the war, opposed to the prosecution of the war, opposed to emancipation, opposed to the constitutional amendments, and which never rises higher than an obstinate opposition to everything that is done or attempted by its adversary. Its history is too intimately interwoven with secession and the rebellion, and its associations have been too close with the men who brought on the rebellion and are morally responsible for it. There is also an apparent timidity in the managers of the party, a want of principle or of moral courage, an instinctive fear, perhaps, that the ignorant ranks which they lead and seem thoroughly to control will really not be led too abruptly out of their old paths, nor constrained into supporting any new policy of affirmative usefulness. It is difficult to conceive of any other reason which can make them persistently adhere to a policy which has confessedly no end but that of inevitable defeat. They seem to know that their troops cannot be trifled with, and that if they would remain generals, they had better make no attempts to cross the prejudices of vice and ignorance. Hence it is that the Republican mind instinctively hesitates, and will long continue to hesitate, before it will consent to hand over the country to politicians as unscrupulous as its own, having behind them all the material in the land which is the least fitted for the responsibilities and sacrifices of self-government. Hence it is that the Republican politician instinctively feels that he can give his audacity pretty full swing without running any great risk of losing his place. Hence it is that Messrs. Morton, Logan, and Conkling dare to force the President into the abandonment of the one reform to which the party was pledged, while the entire respectable press of the party is slowly wheeling into the unfriendly ranks.

The question therefore is, how can the Republican citizens stop the maladministration of Republican leaders without throwing the government into more unscrupulous hands? Of course, no party can maintain itself with the whole intelligent press of the country for three years arrayed against it; and when once the press adopts a policy and meets with opposition, it is not apt to be overmoderate in its counsels. It is not easy to predict what shape the movement will assume, nor to foretell at what point it will be willing to halt; but if the editorial statement we have quoted from an Administration paper be true, then it is certain that a movement has begun, spontaneous, unforeseen, long before a Presidential election, and on the heels of a disastrous defeat, which is laying the broadest and strongest foundation for a future party, by drawing to itself the sympathy, if not the support, of the entire intelligence of the people.

BARON RICHTHOFEN'S TRAVELS IN CHINA.

I.

WITHIN the last fifteen years a good many Europeans have travelled in the remote parts of China, and among them there has been none better fitted by nature and education for the work of an explorer than Baron Fried-

rich von Richthofen, a Prussian geologist, half an American, however, by virtue of his long residence in the United States among the mountains of California, and his close friendship with our own eminent geologist and mining engineer, Professor Whitney of Harvard College. Baron Richthofen has a keenness of observation, a precision in generalizing from specialties, a soundness of judgment, which give for the general reader a value and interest to his accounts which a geological treatise would not alone possess. But the most useful basis for a traveller in countries where the character of the people as well as the chances for change and progress are mainly affected by the natural conditions of the land, is a thorough geological education, and in that department of science he is acknowledged to stand in the first rank.

Of the eighteen provinces of China, those that lie upon the seaboard have long been well known. In each there is a port open to foreign commerce, and the residents at those ports, commercial and missionary, traverse them through their length and breadth. Behind these is another tier of provinces less known, then still another, and finally a fourth tier, the most interesting of all, and forming the western side of China proper. These provinces border upon Mongolia, Thibet, and Burma, are very mountainous, abounding in picturesque scenery, and one of them, Szr-chwan (or Szechuen), is the largest in extent and one of the richest and most populous in the Empire. This western tier also, including those in the northwest, which lie rather nearer the seaboard, hold the greater part of the coal and minerals of China, adding greatly to their interest.

The members of the foreign mercantile communities in China have always taken an active part in collecting information and promoting researches in the country, and, in the summer of 1869, the Chamber of Commerce of Shanghai sent a delegation of its members on a journey into Szr-chwan to ascertain its capabilities and the possibility of reaching it with foreign steamers by the way of its great water-road, the Yangtze River. Foreign steamers at present run on that river to the great central mart of Hankow, 600 miles from its mouth. The delegation found that the navigation was easy for 400 miles further, but, to reach the heart of Szr-chwan, there were still 420 miles, and these lead through gorges and over rapids of the most dangerous character, and almost impassable except for short and shoal vessels, such as are used by the Chinese. The great difficulty of improving the communication, without which the extension of the residence privilege to Szr-chwan was of doubtful advantage, and the indisposition of the Chinese Government to increase the facilities for foreign intercourse, prevented any practical result from this effort, though the information obtained was of great value.

Soon after this enterprise, the Chamber, aided by subscriptions from individuals, raised the sum of about taels 6,000 sycee, the equivalent of about \$10,000 in our money, for a general and superficial exploration of the coal-bearing and mining districts throughout the north and west of China, this time in the interests of general knowledge. The especial object in the subscription was to avail themselves of the services of Baron Richthofen, who had offered to give them without remuneration, if enough money was provided for travelling expenses. After some preliminary excursions, Baron Richthofen entered upon his principal journey, the report of which to the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce, made in May, 1872, we now propose to review.

He left Peking in October, 1871, intending to pass through the remote provinces of Shanse, Shense, Szr-chwan, and Yunnan, and perhaps finally descend to the sea through Cochinchina or Burma, far to the south. This journey would run along a line from 1,200 to 2,000 miles from the coast line, through very interesting provinces, entirely free from the effects of contact with Europeans, and some of them the scene of the earliest incidents in Chinese history. Owing to the troubled state of the country, he did not get beyond Szr-chwan, returning to Shanghai down the Yangtze. The party consisted of the Baron, his foreign interpreter, and his Chinese servant. They travelled on Chinese horses, their baggage sometimes carried in carts and sometimes on pack mules.

Leaving Peking, he first examined the coal-beds near that city, passed into Mongolia, travelling northwest, spent two weeks there, and re-entered China proper in Shanse at a town called Ta-tung-fu. The table land (or steppes) of Mongolia is separated from China proper by a belt of rough mountain peaks, where the diversified country which drains to the sea suddenly ceases, the land rises between 5,000 and 6,000 feet, and the observer finds himself upon the boundless grassy plain of Central Asia, without rivers or outer drainage, without mountains for hundreds of miles, without cultivation, and inhabited by the same race that followed Genghis Khan and Attila. The Great Wall runs through the rugged border country, paying no regard to mountain peaks or valley depths. It is now in ruins, except at certain passes, and the Chinese settlers have penetrated far beyond it into Mongolia.

The two races do not, however, intermarry, and the Chinese advance only by pushing the Mongols before them. As the latter are constantly outwitted and cheated by the cunning traders of the former, there is no love felt for the intruders, and the Baron justly says that "they may become terrible if their dormant force is wielded by some strong controlling power."

As contrasting the life of the two nations, the following extract is interesting:

"After having seen for days nothing but grass land, with here and there an isolated Mongol camp, and with numberless herds of cattle, sheep, camels, horses, and goats grazing around shallow basins, with an undrained pool in the centre, one arrives quite unexpectedly at the edge of the plateau, with an altitude of about 6,000 feet, and overlooks the large flat basin of Tung-ni-kwan. Although only 250 feet below the edge, it forms part of the other system, and is drained to the sea. The Chinese settlers have within a few years advanced to this valley from below, bringing with them their domestic habits, their industry, their implements of agriculture, and their commercial spirit. It teems with scattered villages, the houses of which, roughly built of loam, could, in November, scarcely be discerned between the high grain stacks which surround them. On the same extent of ground where a short time ago a few Mongols earned a scanty subsistence by feeding their herds on spontaneous vegetation, a Chinese population probably amounting to thousands not only finds the means of subsistence, but exports produce to the neighboring districts of China and to the Mongols themselves.

"The contrast between nomadic and agricultural life is seldom so strikingly exhibited, and however strongly a hasty visit to the 'Grass Land' may predispose the mind in favor of the frank and hospitable Mongol, that single sight is sufficient to illustrate the superiority of the hard-working Chinese, though the level be low at which the race has stopped on its former road to progress."

Entering the fertile and important province of Shanse, near the capital city of Ta-tung-fu, the Baron crossed it from north to south, leaving it at the fortress and town of Tung-kwan on the Yellow River. This province is noted for the production of iron and salt, and is also throughout a coal-bearing region. It is of great elevation, its general altitude being 5,000 to 6,000 feet above the sea. The great peculiarity, however, in its soil, which is the singular formation called *loess*. This is supposed to be a sub-aerial deposit, in contradistinction to alluvial bottom lands, which are the deposit of water. It is found where there is no outward drainage, and is, to quote the words of the Baron, "the collective residue of uncountable generations of herbaceous plants, assisted by the large amount of material which was spread over the plain by wind and water, and kept there by vegetation." It is defined as "a solid but friable earth of brownish-yellow color, and, when triturated with water, not unlike loam, but differing from it by its highly porous and tubular structure." "It is full of fossil land shells, and contains bones of quadrupeds, but no remains of either marine or fresh-water shells." The loess covers whole sections of country, high and low alike, sometimes much over a thousand feet in depth, smoothing down excrescences, and giving a soft and rolling character to the surfaces. It is the only cultivated ground in the north, after leaving the alluvial plains and valleys, and but for it great portions of those northern provinces would have been waste. It is of extraordinary fertility, needing only rain for continuous crops, so much so that, after cultivation for probably 5,000 years, it still yields full returns for the seed sown! The only manure is fresh loess, either by turning over or throwing on a few inches from ridges at the sides of the fields. Baron Richthofen thinks this property of regenerating itself is due to the great porosity of the loess, which enables it to absorb gases from the air in large proportion, and also to draw to the surface, in heavy rains, fresh supplies of the fertilizing constituents of the soil from great depths.

It is not stratified, except where it has been redeposited by water, and its tendency to vertical cleavage and its tenacity cause singular peculiarities in the countries where it exists. Wherever water runs, it cuts deep channels with steep sides, from forty to two hundred feet deep. Some of the river courses are sunk six hundred feet, with sides so steep that the river is inaccessible. These ravines traverse the whole land, ramifying into branches, and these into branchlets, until the country is fairly impassable, except on the worn paths. Up to its borders, merchandise and produce are carried in carts, but nearly throughout the formation the only methods of conveyance are men's shoulders or pack-animals, which, in North China, are generally mules or donkeys. Over one pass the Baron met, by computation, more than 2,000 pack-animals in one day, and over another fully 5,000 donkeys, all fully laden, conveying merchandise from the south to the north. The paths through the loess country, where not pursuing the course of a ravine, ascend by zigzags the intervening ground, and descend at the next ravine, and so on, constantly ascending and descending precipitous inclines. The inhabitants throughout the region live in caves cut in the walls of loess, the doorways perhaps edged with brick, and these walls are so lasting that the caves are often handed down to generation after generation. The walls of the caves are lined with cement made from a marly substance found in the loess

itself, and many of them are well lighted and comfortable, warm in winter and cool in summer. To quote again:

"High up on a rock of earth, steeper than any rock of stone, stands the temple of the village on a small fortress, which affords the villagers a safe retreat in times of danger. The only access to such a place is by a spiral staircase dug out within the mass of the bluff itself. In this yellow defile there are innumerable nooks and recesses, often enlivened by thousands of people, who dwell in caves dug out in the loess. Through every gully they climb up to their fields, each of which is a small terrace for itself, enclosed by vertical walls on two or three sides, and descending in another wall to the next field below. Looking down a slope of loess, nothing is visible but fine green fields, looking up, all is yellow and cliffy, because only the naked vertical walls of the terraces can be seen."

The loess extends to very high land (in some places, under the Baron's observation, reaching to 8,000 feet), but, wherever it is, it is cultivated. Owing to the ease with which it is ploughed, and the little need for manure, the country recovers its prosperity after desolation by war in a way unknown in alluvial countries. In Nganhwei, for instance, after the Taeping rebellion, the alluvial country for many hundred miles still lay in reeds and jungle ten years after the rebel hordes were swept away. But in Shense, in the loess country, where also there was a frightful slaughter, and only one-tenth of the people returned to their villages, two years sufficed to see the whole land again under cultivation. The description of loess is completed by the following extract from another portion of Baron Richthofen's account, where he is referring to the celebrated basin of the Wei:

"Everything is yellow. The hills, the roads, the fields, the water of rivers and brooks, are yellow; the houses (where there are any) are made of the yellow earth, the vegetation is covered with yellow dust, and whatever moves on the road shares the general yellow color. Even the atmosphere is seldom free from a yellow haze. It is here, if I am correctly informed, that the word 'hwang' (yellow) was first used as the symbol of the earth, and one of the most ancient of the Chinese emperors adopted the title 'Hwangti,' 'Lord of the Earth,' or, as we may more fitly translate it, 'Lord of the Loess.'"

The country covered by this valuable mantle is 250,000 square miles in extent, and is altogether in the north of China, as it is quite unknown elsewhere within its bounds. Shense yields, for exportation, coal, iron, and salt, consuming its agricultural products within its own borders. It even imports wheat, together with cotton and opium. Its altitude prevents it from profiting to the full extent by the richness of its soil. It is, however, a wealthy province, owing to the enterprise and intelligence of its people, who spread all over China, as bankers and clerks, leaving their families at home, and ultimately bringing home the fruits of their industry and economy. The principal native banking-houses in Shanghai are Shense. The people are pleasant in manners, and friendly to foreigners, and one travels through the province with safety and comfort.

Entering Shense, the next province towards the west and southwest, at Tung-kwan, where the Yellow River, after flowing south, takes a sharp turn to the east and runs in a parallel direction to the Yangtze, towards the sea-coast, the Baron travelled along the great high road to Si-ngan-fu, the capital of the province, and one of the largest cities of the north. Baron Richthofen says but little of the Yellow River, as, in the region where he crossed, it runs through such inaccessible ground that, in the Mohammedan rebellion, it proved an effectual barrier to its spread from Shense to Shense. It is navigable for small boats, but has few landing-places, and is difficult to cross. Where he crossed, perhaps a thousand miles from the sea, "the current was swift, the water muddy, the river shallow, and the width estimated at 600 yards." As is well known, this river, when it reaches the alluvial country, has brought down such an immense deposit that it fills its bed, and so, when in flood, overtops its banks, and devastates the surrounding country. Moreover, in the endeavor to keep it in its channel, the Chinese go on heaping up the dikes until the bed of the river itself is above the surrounding country. At last comes the period when it forsakes this channel, no longer a channel, and chooses a new line across country, sometimes striking the sea far away from its original mouth. A few ages pass, and it is back again, causing infinite loss and misery in these movements. A traveller through the alluvial region thus describes the scene when he struck the Yellow River at a parallel point, and where the dikes were yet doing good service. After speaking of subsidiary works some 10 or 12 miles from the north bank, showing the distance its ravages extended, he says:

"At last, in a village apparently bounded by an earthen wall as large as that of the Tartar city of Peking, was reached the first of the main outworks erected to resist the Whangho (Yellow River), and on reaching the top, a river and the gigantic earthworks rendered necessary by its outbreaks burst on the view. On a level with the spot on which I was standing

stretched a series of embankments, each one about 70 feet high, and of breadth sufficient for four railway tracks to run abreast on them. One long bank, about two miles from the river-bank, ran parallel to the direction of the stream: half a mile distant ran a similar one. These two embankments were then connected by another series of same height and size, running at right angles and continuing down to the edge of the water. The country is thus divided into a series of squares offering, I should imagine, a very effectual resistance to any inundation."

The river here, probably 400 miles from its mouth, was half a mile broad, and so shallow that the ferry-boat was poled across, except over a small channel about 12 feet wide and 20 feet deep.

Shense had been completely devastated by the Mohammedan rebels some ten years before, but was now again in possession of the Imperialists, after being lost for eight years. The character of this rebellion was of the bloodiest description. To quote again from the Baron:

"Evidently the Mohammedans have had the firm purpose to exterminate the entire Pagan population and the destructible portion of their property. They made a wholesale slaughter of men, women, and children, and destroyed villages and cities. Where mountains were in the neighborhood, the inhabitants fled to them if they were able to do so. But the movements of the rebels, who were on horseback, were so rapid and unexpected, that the proportion of those who were able to take refuge was small. The destruction was greatest in the central portion of the Wei Basin, on account of the great distance of the hills. On the road from Tung-kwan to Si-ngan-fu, every city was destroyed. In the villages, not a house was left standing, those of the Christians excepted. The villages in the Wei Basin were large and numerous: not one of them has escaped destruction. The destruction of life counts by millions."

The cities with solid and high walls escaped, as the rebels had no artillery, and Si-ngan-fu was thus preserved. The Christians spoken of are Catholic Christians, of whom there are many in the western and northern provinces, from the times of the early Jesuit missionaries, and they were on good terms with the Mohammedans.

Baron Richthofen did not find the people in Shense so pleasant as they had been in Shanse, perhaps owing to the recent turbulent times, perhaps partly to the influence of the neighboring province of Honan, where the people have always been rude to strangers, and especially to foreigners. He, however, crossed without any noteworthy incident.

ENGLAND.—MR. PLIMSOLL AND THE SHIPOWNERS.

LONDON, April 4, 1873.

ALREADY, though we have not yet arrived at the Easter vacation, the overburdened mechanism of the House of Commons gives symptoms of the approach of the usual climax of a general dead-lock. In the best of times, it is apt to become clogged with the vast multiplicity of business which comes before it; it is well if a very small fragment of the raw material offered at the beginning of the session is turned out as a finished product at the end; and if the sensational measure of the year be passed, and a few more bits of legislation be turned out in a more or less mangled condition, we may consider that we have done very well. When the whole mechanism is thrown out of gear by such a catastrophe as that which has befallen the Government, the work done is of course diminished in proportion. Of the two principal undertakings promised for this session, the reconstruction of the Irish University and the reform of our judiciary, the first has, of course, gone to the limbo of legislative abortions: one little fragment indeed survives, and will, to all appearance, be carried through Parliament. Mr. Fawcett's proposal to meet the Catholic demands by throwing open Trinity College to members of all persuasions was, for the time, put aside by the attempt of Government to deal with the question, and has again come to life with the collapse of that attempt. Some sanguine people hoped that Government, without adopting Mr. Fawcett's plan, would give him sufficient facilities for getting it through Parliament. A private member has no chance of passing a bill of such magnitude unless he receives some assistance from ministers. They have only to be indifferent, without being openly hostile, in order that he may be swamped by the pressure of official business. It was hoped, however, that having failed themselves, they might allow a measure to be passed which would settle a very troublesome question sufficiently to get it out of the way for the next election. On the other hand, it was supposed that Mr. Gladstone was too much vexed at his own failure to allow one of his bitterest Radical opponents to get the credit of settling the difficulty. The result has been a kind of compromise. Mr. Fawcett's measure, reduced to the modest proportions of a simple abolition of tests, will be passed; and the provisions intended to provide a new governing body capable of representing all parties will be dropped. A grievance will be removed, inasmuch as Catholics and Dissenters will now be able to compete for a fair share of the endowments, and Trinity College will be in this respect in the same condition as the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge.

* Letter of E. C. Oxenham, of the British Legation at Peking.

Of course, the wider question of a university capable of conferring degrees upon students in other colleges remains unsettled. There is, therefore, still an opportunity for any party which is not afraid of burning its fingers to rake up this agitation again and see what it can make of it. The precedent of this year's performance will not be very encouraging, and it seems highly probable that Ultramontane members will have a good text for their oratory for many years to come.

This question being for the present out of the way, and Mr. Gladstone having been forced by the incapacity of his opponents to resume his post, the other great measure of the session might have been expected to be pressed with the greater energy. If ministers could not win fame by remedying the last remaining Irish grievance, they had the stronger motives for distinguishing themselves in the paths of law reform. It seems, however, that Lord Selborne is rather wanting in the necessary vigor. After making an admirable speech in introducing his measure, he and the distinguished legal luminaries who enjoy the comparative repose of the House of Lords seem to be taking the matter rather too easily. The absence of one or other of those great pundits caused the second reading to be put off to a rather late period, and they have found so many difficulties of detail that they have decided to refer the subject to a select committee. Lord Selborne assented to this with rather more than the necessary courtesy, and the consequence is to render it doubtful whether anything can be done this session. The Easter recess is close at hand, during which no man can work. After that, a select committee continue the process of picking holes in a complicated measure as long as seems good to them; and when it at last emerges, and is sent down to the House of Commons, that period of the session will have been reached at which jaded and weary members are thinking rather of Scotch moors than of legislation, and a very little obstruction is sufficient to be fatal to an elaborate bill. There is not energy enough left in the general mass of the members to overpower the opposition of a few of those dogged persons who refuse to be silenced or pacified. If these prognostications be fulfilled, the session, it must be admitted, will come to a somewhat weak and impotent conclusion, and probably Mr. Disraeli will consider that he has acted wisely in refusing to take office. The growing unpopularity of his opponents is not likely to be counterbalanced by any brilliant success. There is indeed one awkward obstacle to a speedy success of the Conservative party, namely: the resolution of a considerable section of that party not to take office so long as Mr. Disraeli is the leader. A knowledge of that fact was dexterously ignored in the ingenious speech in which he gave reasons for not taking office on Mr. Gladstone's resignation; but the truth is sufficiently notorious, and is one more reason why we are not likely to have any strong government for some time to come.

Politics of the ordinary kind have ceased for the moment to be very interesting; the British public has worked itself into a great state of enthusiasm about another agitation. It is as difficult to explain these sudden gusts of popular emotion as to explain the variations of the weather. Just now, be the reason what it may be, the whole world is occupied in eagerly discussing Mr. Plimsoll. A year ago, few people knew his name, and nobody cared about the subject which has lifted him into temporary fame. In a general way, everybody was aware that a good many rotten old ships went down annually upon our eastern coasts; and perhaps we had a dim suspicion that the system of marine insurance prevented the owners from taking as much interest in the matter as they ought. It happened, however, that Mr. Plimsoll made a voyage from London to Hull during a great storm, and that Mrs. Plimsoll was very anxious for his safety. When he escaped, he resolved to show his gratitude by securing new regulations for the safety of people placed under similar conditions. He has gone into the subject with immense energy, and with a zeal which perhaps outruns discretion. He has published a book which is calculated to curdle the blood of persons who go down to the sea in ships. It is elaborately illustrated with photographic representations of the various dishonest tricks by which ships are roughly stitched together sufficiently to deceive the underwriters, and to go down at the first rough weather which they encounter. Moreover, he confirms his general statements by giving particular instances so fully delineated that he has already four actions for libel brought against him. Their personal nature may be easily imagined. There is a story, for example, of a certain shipowner, sufficiently well known, whose ill-luck in ships is so notorious that he can no longer insure them. The suggestion is, of course, that before he got his bad name he made money by sending ships to sea overinsured, with the calculation that it would pay him to lose them. Then there are stories of overladen ships going to sea so deep in the water that everybody on shore foretold their fate; of sailors, of course provided with wives and families, who begged to be discharged but were forced by the present law to abide by their contracts, and who are accordingly at this moment at the bottom of the German Ocean. The indignation excited by such incidents

received an accidental impulse by the wreck of the *Northfleet*, and will doubtless be stimulated still further by the loss of the *Atlantic*; for the public mind is not superfluously endowed with logic; and although neither of those melancholy disasters is attributable to the causes indicated by Mr. Plimsoll, still their occurrence brings forcibly before the general imagination "what pain it is to drown." Mr. Plimsoll thus appears as the sailors' advocate against the selfishness and roguery of shipowners; and he has certainly made out a *prima-facie* case for some legislative interference. He has been addressing public meetings and creating extraordinary enthusiasm, which most likely will be increased by the result of the trials against him. If the actions for libel should fail, his case will be regarded as proved; and if they succeed, he will appear as a martyr in the cause of public reform.

Meanwhile, he demands immediate legislation, for the purpose of effectually remedying such evils in future. A commission is to examine the subject, but he maintains that the case is too urgent to wait for the result of its enquiries, and that something should be done to apply at least a provisional remedy. The proposal is in one sense characteristic of that change in public opinion which Mr. Mill and his school are always denouncing. It illustrates the common tendency to ask Government to put everything straight, instead of trusting our old friends the inexorable laws of supply and demand. An army of inspectors is to be appointed, so numerous as to prevent any ship from going to sea in a dangerous state. The definition of what constitutes a dangerous state is to be framed in a series of parliamentary regulations. It is to be rigidly declared what is the position of the load-line; what is the minimum of free-board; on what conditions cargo is to be allowed to be placed on deck, and so on. In short, a system of regulations is suggested calculated to make Mr. Herbert Spencer's hair stand on end. There is certainly not much chance that any such rules will be adopted; and it is not impossible that the demand may provoke a reaction. The most general grievance seems to be the difficulty of obtaining a sufficient security for sailors. It is certainly hard upon a man to be forced to go to sea in a sieve which he had taken for a trustworthy ship; and it would seem that sufficient facilities are not afforded by the present law for allowing him under such circumstances to call in the assistance of the authorities. However, Mr. Plimsoll's enthusiastic friends do not pay much attention to the doubts of our friends who believe in *laissez-faire*, and, indeed, it is curious to remark how little weight doctrines of that school seem to carry with them at the present moment. We are beginning, for example, to discuss the propriety of a purchase of all railways by the state. Nothing could be more contrary to the good old Radical theory; and yet the proposal is being discussed very seriously by intelligent men, and there is certainly a very considerable weight of opinion in its favor. The operation would be so gigantic that of course there is no probability of such suggestions immediately leading to action. The purchase of the telegraphs has afforded a precedent which seems, though on a scale comparatively unimportant, to be in favor of the operation; and though it may be very doubtful whether it will ever be carried into effect, it seems to be highly probable that before long it will be one of the leading topics of the day.

Correspondence.

GREEK OR GERMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent of this week is quite sarcastic about the proposed substitution of German for Greek as a requisite for admission to college. But one or two of his flings refute themselves.

No one pretends that the fabulous Principal of the University of Louvain was not an incompetent cheat; but there are many persons who seriously think it unnecessary to prepare every young man for positions such as that of the contented doctor.

There are many boys of this age who can never be brought to digest our knowledge of Phidias; but out of these many a certain proportion can be brought to find some use for sewing-machines.

No one knows better than Prof. Goodwin that the Greek learned by at least a fourth of the students in Harvard College is every way worthless. Why not, then, allow those who are not and cannot be of a literary turn to leave Greek and take in its stead something which looks toward bread-and-butter? There are many plain people to whom bread-and-butter must always appear the highest end in life, and who should not be weakened for their struggles by innutritious diet.

It is true enough that culture is worth more than rubber-boots, and that to the man of culture Greek is indispensable. But this is wholly away from

the point of the discussion. No one proposes to put it out of the power of a boy capable of high culture to learn Greek. No one proposes to lower the standard of Greek learning in our colleges for those for whom Greek is desirable.

The practical method of making the proposed change, and that which, I venture to predict, President Eliot will be found to favor, would be to make German or Greek the requisite, and perhaps a small knowledge of the rudiments of each.

Your correspondent is probably aware that Aristotle was wise enough to limit his class in esoteric philosophy, and that a part of the wisdom of antiquity has come down to us in the legend of Procrustes.—Yours, etc.,

W.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 18, 1873.

Notes.

T. H. MORRELL has in press "a volume commemorative of the American tribute to the genius of William Shakespeare," of which only fifty copies will be printed. It will give an account of the setting-up of Mr. J. Q. A. Ward's statue of Shakespeare in Central Park, and be illustrated with several pictures.—Judge Daly's Annual Address before the American Geographical Society, on February 17, has been printed in pamphlet form by the Society. It will be found an interesting and comprehensive survey of geographical progress during the year 1872. The daily press, in its report of it, made sad work of the proper names. A few errors of this sort have even here escaped the author's revision. Dr. Schweinfurth's name is not *Gustave* (p. 50), but *Georg* or *George*. He himself calls the African tribe the *Monbuttu*, not *Mombuttu*. *Annuaire Geographique* (p. 59), we presume, stands for M. Vivien de St.-Martin's *Année Géographique*.—Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for March 4 has for its usual two maps one of Southwestern Germany, with Alsace and Eastern Lorraine, before the outbreak of the French Revolution of 1789; and one of the eastern half of Australia, showing all the telegraphic network of the Continent, including, of course, the great overland line from Port Augusta to Port Darwin. The latter is in all save the coloring identical with Stieler's No. 73, as far as it goes.—The First Annual Report of the Committee on the Boston Museum of Fine Arts is before us. The Museum is still without a permanent home, as the Boston fire found it, to its detriment; but its collections are increasing, and are as far as practicable opened to the public. The Legislature is urged to grant a petition for the opening and maintenance of a State Normal Art Training-School.—We are informed by circular that an Oratorio Society has been founded in this city and placed under the direction of Dr. Leopold Damrosch. There will be an active and a passive membership, and preparatory classes for persons not experienced in choral singing. Dr. Damrosch may be consulted at his residence, No. 220 East Thirty-fifth Street.—We have received from Dodd & Mead Part II. of Maynard's 'Birds of Florida,' already noticed by us. The description of the habits of the birds catalogued continues to afford very agreeable reading. No plate accompanies the present part.—The Last Poems of Alice and Phoebe Cary, edited by Mary Clemmer Ames; 'Protection Against Fire,' by Joseph Bird; and 'Old New England Traits,' edited by George Lunt, are among the announcements of Hurd & Houghton.

—We have been asked whether there is any truth in a newspaper statement to the effect that the treaty now existing between this country and Germany as to the right of citizenship in either is to undergo modifications; and that, with the consent of the United States, a clause is to be inserted which would divest of his American citizenship any adopted citizen visiting his native country, and remaining there for a longer term than two years. We can only say that we have no information in the premises.

—Next after the Population volume of the Census, the volume of Vital Statistics which has lately appeared is likely to attract attention. It, too, is provided with colored charts, four of which serve to indicate to the eye the distribution of disease in the United States. Thus, the blue chart denotes the ratio of deaths by consumption, the darker tints assuming a wedge shape, roughly defined by lines drawn from Chattanooga on the one hand through Richmond, and on the other through St. Louis. Most in the shadow of this dreadful disease are the New England coast, all of New Hampshire, and Northern Vermont. Malarial diseases (yellow chart) haunt the Atlantic and Gulf coast from Delaware Bay to Texas, while New England and the larger Middle States, with the two Virginias, are comparatively free from them. California, which, in the central portion, is tolerably consumptive, is universally malarial, but in a light degree. Enteric, cerebro-spinal, and typhus fevers (colored pink) are pretty generally distributed, but find a

stronghold in Southeastern Georgia particularly. No large region, again, wholly escapes intestinal diseases (colored green); but Western Iowa and the district in Mississippi east of the Pascagoula River are noticeably afflicted. Besides these maps, constructed in the office, we have a hypsometric sketch of the United States (map of comparative heights); a chart showing the mean temperature by isothermal lines; and one showing the mean precipitation of rain in like manner. This last is very striking, the prevailing tint, which is blue, being wholly absent from the vast region west of the one hundredth meridian. To the fever chart might properly be annexed Dr. Morrill Wyman's map of the districts exempt from the hay-fever.

—The volume consists of special and general tables of mortality in the United States; of statistics concerning the blind, deaf and dumb, insane, and idiotic; of tables of births; and, finally, of ages. The text which accompanies here and there this laborious array of figures is not exactly popular reading; but Gen. Walker's remarks are always clear and terse, and they make the defects of the census law manifest to the commonest understanding. A cursory examination of the statistics of ages has led us to the following results, it being premised that the males of the foreign-born population are largely in excess of the females; the males of the native white population much less so; while the male colored population is in a decided minority. Contrary to the theory, and we should suppose somewhat to the despair, of Mr. John Timbs, lately editor of *Notes and Queries*, whose forthcoming work, it is said, will maintain that there is no properly attested instance of a centenarian, we are assured that in this country 58 persons in 10,000 reach their hundredth year. How many of our total population could make this boast in 1870, we shall proceed to show. Among the native whites, 642 lived to be one hundred or more years old, viz., males 259, females 383. Foreign-born: total 322, males 135, females 187. Colored: total 2,537, males 885, females 1,652. In every case, the female centenarians outnumbered the male. Tennessee showed 66 (native white) of both sexes, and North Carolina 59; the latter State bearing the palm, however, with one centenarian to every 11,400 (native white) inhabitants. New York naturally leads off in foreign-born centenarians, showing 83 against Pennsylvania's 40, though their ratios are nearly the same (1:13,500, 1:13,600). Louisiana shows 263 colored centenarians; Alabama, 256; Mississippi and Georgia, 254 each; South Carolina, 210; Virginia, 202. Louisiana's ratio is also highest (1:1,400), against Mississippi's (1:1,750). That the former State should prove to be the negro's paradise of longevity appears to be due to accidental causes, if on this point the censuses of 1850 and 1860 are trustworthy. In both these years Virginia took the lead (326, 243 respectively), and Louisiana stood fourth on the list (155, 168 respectively), with Alabama fifth (134, 164 respectively). Perhaps the explanation is that the war and the migration since the war have depleted Virginia in favor of other Southern States, and notoriously the Southwestern—the migration to Louisiana and Texas having been enormous. The age of a slave being extremely difficult to fix, a negro centenarian is perhaps to be looked upon with suspicion. It is certainly singular that in spite of the pains taken to make the census of 1870 more accurate in all respects than its predecessors, and in spite of the war's fatality to the colored population, there should be reported 2,537 colored centenarians in 1870, against 1,940 in 1860, and 1,768 in 1850. This appears to throw some light on the question whether freedom or slavery is the better state for the negro, and whether his race is dying out in the United States.

—The following extract from the 'Truths and Fictions of the Middle Ages, by the late Sir Francis Palgrave,' has been furnished us by a correspondent, apropos of our recent notice of Dr. Heinrich Brunner's researches:

"Until the reign of the Tudors, the *jury*, instead of being the peers of the accused, by whom his guilt was to be tried, a court before whom the validity of the evidence given by the witnesses was to be investigated, were the *sworn* witnesses themselves, and their *true saying*, the *veredictum*, or verdict, was the summing-up of their own testimony. Hence it was the duty of the sheriff to learn their previous knowledge of the facts, and to summon those by whom, in the words of the process yet in use, 'the truth could be better known.' Thus, for example, if the authenticity of a deed was contested, the parties named as witnesses in the charge of attestation were not subpoenaed to give evidence that they had seen it duly sealed, but were themselves associated to the jury.

"So consistent was the ancient law that, if the crime was of such a secret nature that the *neighborhood*, the *visme*, or *vicinetum*, the name technically given to the jury, could not reasonably be supposed to have a knowledge of it—murder by the administration of poison may be instanced—then the accused party could not be tried by a jury at all. The jurors were brought before the judge by the sheriff, upon the same principle that the attorney now collects his witnesses in order to obtain a conviction. He got together those who, in his opinion, could best make out the case. It is to be feared that the sheriff—of the modern limb of the law we will say nothing—was not always overscrupulous as to the means by which that end was to be attained."

—If any American intending to visit the Vienna Exposition has friends at Ulm on the "blue Danube," we think we can counsel him to procure through them such accommodation as he will need at the Austrian capital. Considering the two to three hundred miles intervening between the two places, this may seem like very singular advice. There is, however, at Ulm a company which has undertaken the construction of a number of hotel-barges which will be floated down to Vienna and moored together near the Exposition building, with postal, telegraphic, and transportation facilities, and with good restaurants close at hand. On board one of these our American friend can install himself—not on the *Rhine* or the *Helvetia*, for the Swiss have already bespoken these; nor on the *Union*, also engaged; nor now, perhaps, on the *Württemberg*, *Ulmia*, *Borussia*, *Austria*, or any other of the first flotilla of ten; but on some one of those to be built subsequently, as the application for rooms seems to warrant they will be at once. He will find all the German modern conveniences in his state-room, including a mosquito-net, and he will be charged the moderate price of one dollar (two gulden) per diem. It will be strange if he does not profit by the novel idea, and, on his return to this country, set to work building floating palaces for the centennial celebration at Philadelphia, or for anchorage in the Lower Bay of New York as a convenient summer resort, with bathing and fishing thrown in.

—Since our last summary of important French publications, the following have been noted as deserving the same commendation, to judge by the reviews in which we have met with them at second-hand: Albert Sorel's 'Treaty of Paris, of Nov. 20, 1815,' has a squint towards the later treaty of 1871; and another bit of war literature, 'France in Prussia in 1807-8,' by Baron Ernouf, is also designed to suggest odious comparisons. This latter work is made up of contemporaneous documents—pamphlets, reports, newspapers, etc.—published in Prussia during the French occupation, for the most part clandestinely, so that they are now rare. The author hopes that it will appear from this disinterested evidence how generous the French were, and what respecters of persons and property, when they had a chance to play the "barbarian" invader. M. F. Jacquemin, superintendent of the Eastern Railway, publishes his lectures on 'The French Railroads in the War of 1870-71,' delivered last year at the Ecole des Ponts et Chaussées. They include a survey of military transportation by rail in Germany and Austro-Hungary, and in France and Germany during hostilities; a discussion of the defence of lines of railroads; and rather unfavorable criticism of the extemporized German railway construction. An unpartisan history of the Revolution of 1848, by Henri Gradis, in two volumes 8vo, is praised also for its exactness. Two fragments relating to the elder Revolution have been published together—the inedited correspondence of Mlle. Théophile de Fernig, one of Dumouriez's aides-de-camp, and younger of the two sisters referred to by Lamartine in book xxxvii. of the 'Girondins'; and the inedited journal of La Villeurnoy, on the 'Coup d'Etat du 15 fructidor an V.' This writer was secret agent of Louis XVIII., and among those deported to French Guiana. Here follows properly the 'Introduction to the History of Cayenne,' by the Messrs. de Saint-Quentin—Alfred furnishing a collection of tales and fables in the Creole dialect, with accompanying translation, notes, and commentaries; Edward, some Creole songs; and Augustus, a study of the Creole grammar.

—M. Alphonse Feillet's new edition of the works of Cardinal de Retz has, in two volumes, got as far as the year 1649 of the Memoirs. This elaborate and conscientious work exhibits the various readings of the original text, adds a commentary, and will end with a valuable lexicon of the Cardinal's French. A 'History of Dramatic Music in France,' from its origin to the present day, is by M. Gustave Chouquet, and should have something of interest for the admirers of Rousseau. The complete works of the troubadour Adam de la Halle, "poésies et musique," contains specimens of thirteenth-century French music in the old notation and also modernized. E. de Coussemaker is the editor. Besides the foregoing, we find announced an intended 'Collection des Chefs-d'œuvre historiques et littéraires du Moyen Age,' edited by Prof. Léon Gautier (Ecole de Chartres), and published by Didot; embracing 1. Latin historians (Gregory of Tours, Eginhard); 2. French chroniclers (Froissart, "morceaux choisis"); 3. Latin poetry; 4. Provençal poetry (Chanson de geste de Roland, Roman de Perceval); French Theatre of the Middle Ages; Imitation of Jesus Christ of St. Francis de Sales, etc., etc.) There will be translations and glossaries. In art we have Jacquemart's 'History of Pottery,' in all ages, with exquisite wood engravings and etchings by Jules Jacquemart, fils; and 'Bracasset, sa vie et son œuvre,' by Charles Mariouneau, who has for a subject of admiration and eulogy an animal painter of the first class, but comparatively little known for the master that he was while he yet lived. Barbier's 'Dictionnaire des Ouvrages anonymes,' begun in 1806-

1808, has reached a third edition, and is appearing in parts. Antonin Rousset's 'Dictionnaire général des forêts,' of which the first part treats of legislation and administration relating to the conservancy of forests, from 1672 to Jan. 1, 1872, may yet serve as a guide to our legislators when dealing with the same subject. Prof. Michel Bréal's 'Remarques on Public Instruction in France,' and Prof. Gustave Boissonade's 'Histoire de la Réserve héréditaire et de son influence morale et économique,' discuss questions of prime importance to their countrymen. M. Boissonade is a warm defender of the *partage égal* against critics like M. Jannet and M. Le Play, but he advocates an increase of the *portion (quotité) disponible* (that is, the amount of his estate which a testator may dispose of at his pleasure) to one half of the patrimony, whatever be the number of his children.

THE HARE FAMILY.

THE fact that this book, comprising two thick volumes in one binding, has run through five editions within a single year, is proof enough that it has been interesting in no ordinary degree to the English public. Why it should be so is not apparent at a first glance. It is in form the memoir of Maria Leycester, the widow of Augustus Hare, who is best known in America as one of the two brothers who wrote the 'Guesses at Truth.' She was not in any way what might be called a remarkable woman, nor is her story, as told in her own letters and journals, by any means an extraordinary one, or one marked by any very striking incidents. Indeed, she seems to have walked from the cradle to the grave, through a long life, in "the green and quiet ways of unobtrusive goodness." She was born, and "well born," her biographer is evidently anxious to have us remember, in an old Cheshire manor-house, in which her family had found a happy home for centuries, and near to which her father was a parish vicar—one, as well as we can judge from scanty references to him in the book, of the quiet, conservative, God-fearing, but, above all things, gentlemanly persons somewhat of the type of the elder Keble, who, in the days before railroads, passed their lives peacefully in remote parishes, struggling with the ordinary local problems of peasant poverty and vice, taking their pleasure in the society of the "county families," and wholly untroubled by theological strife. Her youthful life in the paternal rectory was, on the whole, happy, in spite of her mother's death; and her education, as might be expected, imbued her mind from her earliest years with the deep, but healthy, well-bred, and not over-terrid piety of the Anglican Church—the piety which raises decency and order to so high a place among the virtues, and twines itself so tenderly around the old pillars whether of the state or the household. Among her father's near neighbors was Sir John afterwards Lord Stanley of Alderley, with whose children she grew up in terms of intimacy, afterwards deepened by intermarriage. But the friends who exerted most influence on her in these early years were the Hebers. Reginald Heber, afterwards Bishop of Calcutta, and known in all American Sunday-schools, if in no other way, as the author of "From Greenland's Icy Mountains," was rector of Hodnet, a parish two miles away, and for three or four years Miss Leycester passed part of nearly every day—mostly the evening—at his house, Heber reading aloud to the ladies, sometimes poetry, but principally Scott's novels, which were then appearing, and which, while the authorship was unknown, were attributed by the provincial mind of Cheshire to Richard Heber, Reginald's elder brother, who was the only person on that horizon supposed to be capable of such a feat. Reginald also gave her German lessons, and wrote songs for her to sing—among others, the familiar "I see them on their winding way." This happy and peaceful life of hers—dinner, rides, walks—only broken by a trip to Scotland or the Continent, and occasionally a few weeks' visit to London, lasted until 1822, when the bishopric of Calcutta was offered to Heber, and he accepted—news which came as a thunderbolt to the quiet rectory at Stoke. The blow was made all the heavier by the fact that Miss Leycester had in the meantime become attached to Martin Stow, whom she met at the Hebers', and who was a college friend of her brother's, and who vainly sought her father's consent to their marriage, he being a "mere country curate." Poor Stow in his desperation accepted Bishop Heber's offer of his chaplaincy in India, hoping that the prospect that their daughter, if she married him, would still have the society of the Hebers, might soften the hearts of the obdurate parents, but it was in vain, and he bade her a last farewell, went to his post, and died there in two years, leaving a memory which has been enshrined beside Heber's in the affections of English Churchmen.

After this, Miss Leycester was wooed successfully by Augustus W. Hare, and with him, as rector of the small parish of Alton-Barnes, in Wiltshire, spent five years of delightful married life, during

which she adored her husband, and listened to his sermons with rapture. He died of consumption in Italy in 1833, and she passed thirty-three years in mourning widowhood, partly at Hurstmonceaux Rectory with her brother-in-law Julius Hare, and partly in a quiet home of her own and in journeys on the Continent, seeing little society, and her whole mind absorbed in preparation for the reunion with her husband, for which she looked with a vividness of anticipation which the lapse of time apparently only deepened. There is plainly not enough in such a life to justify a big book. Her letters and journals reveal no remarkable powers either of thought, or observation, or expression. A very large proportion of the published extracts from them owe all their interest to the simple but feebly-drawn pictures they present of quiet English clerical life, and to the struggles of passionate affection to draw consolation under a terrible bereavement from an inexhaustible but apparently not very deep fountain of religious sentiment. These struggles are portrayed at such length, and with so little variety in circumstance, that one finds one's self constantly doubting the taste and expediency of their reproduction.

For the secret of the success of the book we must, therefore, look elsewhere than to the story of Mrs. Hare's own life, and it is to be found, we think, in the glimpses it gives us of the antecedents and surroundings of Julius and Augustus Hare, who again owe their celebrity much less to anything they themselves accomplished in the work of the world than to the fact that they belonged, both at college and in their after-life, to a circle of men who have made a considerable figure in the English literary and religious world during the last fifty years. They were both Anglican ministers, and were men of considerable scholarship of the English type. Julius in particular had dipped deeply into German literature, but the 'Guesses at Truth' display rather acuteness, and suggestiveness, and strength of conviction, than either learning or reflective power. Beyond this, and a volume or two of sermons, only remarkable in the case of Augustus for their sweetness, persuasiveness, and directness, and in that of Julius for a certain brilliant discursiveness, they contributed nothing, or almost nothing, to literature. Augustus died at forty-one, a laborious and devoted parish minister of only five years' standing; Julius, in maturer age and after much longer service, too, as a parish minister, but one who never found his place either in the pulpit or beside the sick-bed.

But they made their entrance into clerical life with a background more picturesque and aristocratic than most country parsons can boast. They were the descendants of Francis Hare, one of George the Second's bishops, a man of good old Essex family, who, though of somewhat sour and penurious temper, managed to climb up the ladder of preferment, and secure a greater number of fat offices, including sinecures, than any churchman of a period in which churchmen were shameless and greedy. He married twice, and both times obtained a large fortune, and through his marriage his son by his last wife inherited the famous old castle and estates of Hurstmonceaux on the Sussex coast, long the seat of the Dacres, then sold in 1708 to George Naylor, a successful lawyer. It was the noblest baronial hall—indeed, the largest inhabited house—in England in its day, and that in which the most lavish hospitality prevailed, and it is only a century since its fires went out, and it was abandoned to the bats and owls, and fell into the picturesque ruin over which tourists now fondly linger. The author of the volume before us, the son of Francis Hare, the last owner, tells with pardonable pride of the days when the vast suite of guest-chambers in the castle was constantly filled with visitors; of the great oven, in which the guide-books say a "coach and six could turn round"; of the two butts of ale, which stood constantly "on tap" at the outer gate, so that every thirsty wayfarer might draw and drink; of the twenty old crones who picked the grass out of the pavement of the great court-yard; and of the four lusty servitors whose sole duty was to mind the castle clocks. In 1806, however, the father of Julius and Augustus Hare, being much burdened with debt, and by no means of an accumulative turn, sold the estate and castle, but the church living of Hurstmonceaux remained in the family. Even this his heir, Francis, the brother of Julius and Augustus, sold also, so that the death of Julius, who held it, closed the connection of the Hares with Hurstmonceaux altogether. It thus only lasted about eighty years altogether, but this was long enough apparently to give the Hares a deep ancestral feeling for the place, and furnish the generation to which Julius and Augustus belonged with a splendid background at their entrance on life. They were two of four sons of Francis Hare-Naylor (the name Naylor was taken when the estate was inherited from Grace Naylor), who married a daughter of Bishop Shipley of St. Asaph's. The lady was the grand-niece of the famous Earl of Peterborough. Georgiana, famed in London society at the close of the last century as "the beautiful Duchess of Devonshire," was her cousin; her sister married Sir William Jones, the celebrated Oriental scholar. She herself was a woman of remarkable powers of mind and great sweetness of character, but whose

life was clouded by being married to a shiftless husband. The children were partly educated, and some of them born, in Italy—the well-known Clotilda Tambroni—who has rejoiced the hearts of so many Woman's Rights champions as having been at one time Professor of Greek at Bologna—having, as well as Mezzofanti, afterwards the famous Cardinal, given them some of their instruction while living on terms of warm and intimate affection with the mother. But Mrs. Hare died early, and very sadly, worn out in life's struggle, and the boys were tenderly cared for and their education provided by Lady Jones, their aunt. At school and college they were surrounded by friends and companions whose names are now household words in the English-speaking world. At the Charterhouse School, Julius had among his companions Thirlwall and Grote, the future historians of Greece, Sir William Jones, and Sir Henry Havelock, afterwards of Indian fame. At Cambridge, he met Sedgwick, who was his tutor, and Thirlwall, and Whewell, and among his pupils he had John Sterling, Frederick Maurice, and Richard Cavendish. He and Augustus took orders in due course, published the 'Guesses at Truth,' and in due course Augustus took one of the college livings at Alton-Barnes, while Julius settled at Hurstmonceaux. While here, he had John Sterling for eight months as his curate, and married Esther, a sister of Frederick Maurice. The brothers, too, were intimate with Walter Savage Landor, and Arnold, and Niebuhr, and Bunsen; and Augustus, during a portion of one of his visits to Italy, stayed for some time in the house of Lady Blessington, and sent her a cordial message from his death-bed. His days of happiness and usefulness were few. His active service in the church only lasted five years, the whole of which were passed in one little parish, in which he gave himself, with extraordinary and long-remembered fervor, up to the instruction and consolation of the poor laborers who composed the bulk of his flock. Julius, who settled down in the stately family living of Hurstmonceaux, had not the material of a pastor in him, and preached over the heads of his congregation. He was passionate and combative, as Augustus was patient and gentle, and passed the flower of his years in controversy. He had a fine library and fine pictures. The charms of his conversation made his rectory for many years a favorite resort of some of the choicest spirits of the intellectual society of the capital. With characteristic impetuosity, he was twice engaged, and both times to widows, for long periods, before he married Esther Maurice. His death in 1854 broke up the circle of which Hurstmonceaux was for so many years the centre. His library was presented by his widow to Trinity College, Cambridge, and his pictures to the Fitzwilliam Museum. Mrs. Augustus Hare lingered until 1870, but the portion of the book which relates to this period might well have been omitted. As a record of the family life of a cultivated clerical circle, containing some of the best elements of English life, and exhibiting many of its most striking peculiarities, it will well repay reading.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR APRIL.

THE *North American Review* for April is probably as able and authoritative a number as ever issued from the press. Mr. John K. Paine, of Harvard College, the well-known composer and organist, discusses the music of Liszt, Berlioz, and Wagner, giving most of his attention to the last-named master; Mr. Chauncey Wright treats learnedly and at length of "The Evolution of Self-Consciousness"; Mr. Henry James, jr., eulogizes, with an appropriate array of adjectives, the late Théophile Gautier; General and Professor Walker, sometime Commissioner of Indian Affairs, contributes a very interesting paper entitled "The Indian Question," which ought to be on file in every newspaper office in the country; Mr. Karl Hillebrand closes his review of the life, character, and influence of Herder; and the sixth and last article is composed of five book-notices, the longest being a review of 'Middlemarch'—a book which, as we suppose, has called out more of careful critical writing than any modern work of fiction, and is destined to call out still greater quantity. It is wonderful to think of the world of oral and written discussion that has been directed to this story and its personages. The reason, perhaps, is the one hinted at by the *North American* critic, namely, that it satisfies no one, and, we would add, dissatisfies people as reflecting the stern discontent of a dissatisfied and dreary moralist—perhaps we should further add, of a female moralist. We speak with a full sense of the astonishing power of this great writer, whom, however, it is too early yet for her readers to see with clearness and precision.

That the *Review* is not declining in vivacity with lapse of decades, but rather may be said to be renewing its youth, the following reference to some well-known citizens is evidence: "From the Secretary of the Treasury down to James Fisk, jr. and David Dudley Field, there seems a growing tendency to disregard the law in the pursuit of ends which seem desirable, whether those ends be the moving of the crops or the plunder of a rich corporation." The book under review is Mr. Richard Frothingham's 'Rise of

the Republic of the United States,' and the reviewer makes some other just remarks as well as this one. For example, those really most un-American of Americans—the men who are for ever parading themselves before their uninstructed fellow-countrymen as patriots peculiarly American—may profitably read sentences like these which follow, and the books, also, to which they refer. We should then hear less oratory from the breed of politicians who are ready to go, as a Connecticut politician the other day said he was, "with the New Testament in one hand and the Stars and Stripes in the other, and welcome to our shores all of every race and every color and every continent," etc. etc. It ought not to be necessary to say, but it is necessary, and daily more so, that not by such labors as these was this Republic founded. The reviewer says: "If the people of the United States were more familiar with the history of their own country, and understood better the conditions under which republican government has succeeded with them so remarkably, we should hear less of that political school which sees in Napoleonism the only cure for the vices of our system; and, on the other hand, should be less eager to extend our national congratulations whenever among the various phases of anarchy in any quarter of the globe the republican is for a moment uppermost." Flag-waving is an inexpensive process of fitting him for self-government and the government of others, but good readers of Mr. Frothingham will think it a doubtful substitute for the century and a half of town-meetings and vestry-meetings which preceded the Revolution, and the thousand or two years of Anglo-Saxon and English liberties which preceded the Massachusetts and Connecticut town-meetings. The fact is, if we are proud enough we are not rightly proud of the state here founded, and our flag-wavers and sympathizers do really insult us and those who went before us when they pass Congressional resolutions sympathizing with republics which have no republicans, and peopled with races of men our inferiors in many important respects.

Mr. Paine is not an admirer of the music of the future. The texts of Wagner's operas, he observes, are open to grave criticism as dramatic subjects; his most determined admirers cannot maintain that he has a good literary style; and indeed, the rhetoric and versification of his texts deserve severe censure; in the portrayal of character he fails to display any great originality or power, and as a dramatic poet he cannot be classed as a master, "nor as a musician will he ever occupy an equal rank with Bach, Handel, or Beethoven." What, then, is the secret of his present popularity? Mr. Paine's answer to this question is that "Wagner is a consummate master of all the externals of the stage." The theatrical spectacle with its brilliant pomp is an invariable and indispensable adjunct to his operas; "one grand effect succeeds another in logical and natural sequence; yet nothing, apparently, is introduced for the sake of effect," and the rich variety of the scenes without superfluity powerfully affects the spectator; the composer even turns decorative artist and invents scene-pictures for his operas. Then, too, he has displayed equal skill and originality in his treatment of the action of the play, and is true to the dramatic object in all points of display: "Although his later music is not framed on an ideal style and is difficult to sing and lacks real beauty in the absence of melody, yet it is declamatory in a powerful degree; it is true to the metrical accents of the verse, and expresses vividly the meaning of the words, and in this respect he stands out prominently as a progressive master, and will exercise decided influence on the dramatic music of the future." Furthermore, Wagner "has exhibited a wonderful technical command of the orchestra," and "many of the themes and melodies of his earlier operas are noble, characteristic, and pleasing, though, with some notable exceptions, compared with similar compositions of the greatest masters, they appear to disadvantage and seem somewhat coarse and formal"; his music, "composed in the free thematic form," when compared with similar works by Schumann, for example, or Mendelssohn, appears to lack refined beauty, and this lack is not compensated by any real grandeur of style.

Of the essay by Mr. Wright we are incompetent to speak, though in the several capacities of metaphysician, mystic, poet, and theologian, we darkly see, or suspect we do, that for such this innocent-looking philosophic treatise contains certain love-pats. Mr. James's criticism of Gautier is very kind. "If there are sermons in stones," he remarks, "there are profitable reflections to be made even on Théophile Gautier; notably this one—that a man's supreme use in this world is to master his intellectual instrument and play it in perfection." Persons in imperfect sympathy with the general view here implied will feel like suggesting that the supreme use of some men in this world, considering what a world it is, is to throw away their intellectual instrument and never play anything on it. But Mr. James's essay makes it plainer than would be supposed by most who have listened to British-American sermons over Gautier's remains, that Gautier was hardly one of these players after all, though certainly no fit company for St. Cecilia. A wonderful world we shall have, though, when "art for art's

sake" is the rule that guides our pickers and stealers and our young addle-pates.

The 'Herder' essay will be found full of instruction, for its object is to rehabilitate the reputation of that once very famous and influential man. "Herder, the real originator," says Mr. Hillebrand, "of the German civilization of the nineteenth century . . . He it was who first gave utterance to the German idea." Mr. Hillebrand proceeds to make good this assertion by specific proofs, and begins by laying down as the new principle which Herder with revolutionizing effect applied to theology, history, and poetry this: "the superiority of nature over civilization and of intuition over reason"—organism above mechanism; the individual above the rule; synthesis rather than analysis; development rather than legislation; "in a word, the *seri* above the *facere*." After this beginning, which is not without its vagueness, though intelligible enough, the essay follows Herder through the various fields of his immense activity, and concludes by enumerating the monuments of his influence. What but applying Herder's ideas of organic evolution was Niebuhr doing when he was revealing the growth of Rome, the birth of her legends, religious and national, the gradual formation of her constitution, the struggle between her patricians and plebeians, so like that which Niebuhr saw going on in "his own dear Ditmarsians." This is writing about Romans, not as if they always walked about in horse-hair helmets, but as Herder would have the historian write—"able to feel the beat of the nation's pulse whose vicissitudes he undertook to rehearse." And what but applying Herder's ideas was F. A. Wolff doing when he was pointing out the process of epic poetry; or Savigny when proving that the Roman civil law was not the work of one wise legislator but the wisdom of centuries; or Ottfried Müller, when, instead of the school-history Lycurgus evolving a constitution like the Abbé Sieyès, he shows us several legislators satisfied to compile and codify the laws and customs of their country; or the same Müller making it clear that the Greek mythology is not a collection of moral sentences and historic facts, but is the involuntary personification of surrounding nature afterwards developed by the imagination; or Max Müller and Adalbert Kuhn, when upon the basis of comparative linguistics they erect the new science of comparative mythology; or Wilhelm von Humboldt, when he established the laws of language; or Jacob Grimm and his brother; or A. W. Schlegel; or Frederick Schlegel; or D. F. Strauss; or Benjamin Constant, De Tocqueville, Renan, Taine, Carlyle, and Darwin? Each in his own particular branch applies and develops "Herder's two fundamental principles, *i. e.*, that of organic evolution and that of the entireness of the individual." Another of Herder's fundamental principles—namely, that unless men eat and drink once in a while they will die from lack of nutriment—these writers are all busily applying, too. The claim made for Mr. Hillebrand's hero is a pretty wide one, it will be seen, in some aspects of it, and to bear in mind the third fundamental principle just mentioned, or some similar one, may be as well when we come to consider how much of the credit of these men's labors is to be assigned to Herder for his share. But it is not to be denied that Mr. Hillebrand's essay traces in the works of the versatile and pliable and enthusiastic divine the distinct germs of very many of the true achievements of his successors. Nor perhaps is more really asked than that this be conceded, though some readers may feel as if they were asked to say that but for Herder there would have been no Darwin, no Grimm, no Humboldt. That is not Mr. Hillebrand's conception of the course of history any more than it was Herder's. We should like to devote more space to this excellent and suggestive paper, but cannot. There is a passage or two in reference to Goethe and Schiller, and the exclusively Greek, which devotees of those German demigods might find worth looking at. We shall take space, however, to say that this, like the other articles in the number, gives many evidences of careless proof-reading. What is it, we wonder, in the make-up of the proof-reading mind which—barring miracles—necessitates the spelling of "exceptionally" with a "b" in the place of the first "l"? This and many mistakes really worse, though involving nothing of the supernatural, disfigure the *Review* this month.

General Walker's article ought, as we have said, to be read and kept for reference. It is a perfect boon to have such a body of trustworthy information in regard to a topic on which so much is said, and said with so much heat, and on which so little is known. How many editors know how many Indians the United States have within their borders; how many are civilized; how many actually or partially hostile; how far the process of reclaiming them has gone; and how much above one million of dollars it costs to kill a hostile Indian by means of a United States regular soldier? Very few know anything about any of these things; of the whole number of editors in the United States, probably there are not six per cent. who have not within ten days written at least one article in favor of exterminating Modocs, or opposing or defending "the Quaker policy." This article tells exactly what this policy is, and what in the opinion of the writer, an

authority, should hereafter be the general policy of the Government towards the tribes; and relates also the history of the past relations between the two parties. The following is a sample of General Walker's way of looking at his subject, and also of his way of writing:

"Voluptuary and stoic; swept by gusts of fury too terrible to be witnessed, yet imperturbable beyond all men under the ordinary excitements and accidents of life; garrulous, yet impenetrable; curious, yet himself reserved; proud and mean alike beyond compare; superior to torture and the presence of certain death, yet, by the standards of all other peoples, a coward in battle; capable of magnanimous actions which, when uncovered of all romance, are worthy of the best days of Roman virtue, yet more cunning, false, and cruel than the Bengalee—this copper-colored sphinx, this riddle unread of men, equally fascinates and foils the enquirer. This, however, is the Indian of history. The Indian for whom the Government is called to provide subsistence and instruction presents no such psychological difficulties. Curious compound and strange self-contradiction as the red man is in his native character, in his traditional pursuits, and amid the surroundings of his own wild life, yet when broken down by the military power of the whites, thrown out of his familiar relations, his stupendous conceit, with its glamour of savage pomp and glory, rudely dispelled, his occupation gone, himself a beggar, the red man becomes the most commonplace person imaginable, of very simple nature, limited aspirations, and enormous appetites."

MIVART'S ELEMENTARY ANATOMY.*

THE author of the 'Lessons in Elementary Anatomy' has for some time been well known to investigators in science through several elaborate monographs on the comparative anatomy and classification of mammals, especially of the order primates, and he has lately become conspicuous by his work on 'The Genesis of Species.' This latter work, which seems to have been so much misunderstood and quoted against evolution itself, we may remark parenthetically, simply attempts to account for the facts of *ecolution* (which is admitted) by other hypotheses than Darwinism or *natural selection* (which alone is repudiated, and that only in part). In the present lessons on the elements of anatomy (which cannot truly be called elementary lessons), the author has advantageously applied the varied knowledge which he has gained by his researches in comparative anatomy, and, as he remarks, "this endeavor is the first of its special kind." In twelve "lessons" are given (1) a general view of the structure of the human body, and its relations to other animal bodies; (2) the skeleton in general, as well as the vertebral column and thoracic elements; (3) the cranium; (4, 5) the limbs; (6) generalities respecting the skeleton; (7) the exterior; (8) the muscles; (9) the nervous system; (10) the circulating system; (11) the alimentary system; and (12) the excretory organs—rather more than half of the work being devoted to the consideration of the skeleton. Under each of the chapters in which the skeleton and its components are described, first is given a general description of the characteristics developed in man, and then follows a brief comparison and contrast with those characters of the homologous parts in the other vertebrates. Several diagrams (e.g., illustrating the formation of the skull, Figs. 92, 93, and an ideal skull, Fig. 197) are added to aid the conception of the morphology of different parts, and it is gratifying to add that, unlike certain others that are widely known, they are based only to a very slight extent on *a priori* transcendental prejudice; still it is well to bear in mind that perhaps more than one of them takes for granted postulates which all might not be prepared to admit.

As in the case of the osteology, in the single chapters in which the muscles, nervous, circulatory, and alimentary systems and the excretory organs are severally described, first the structure as exhibited in man is made known in general terms, and then the homologous parts in the lower forms. The only specially noteworthy feature in these chapters is the adoption (with the qualification, however, "if this interpretation be correct") of Prof. Huxley's latest views respecting the correspondence of the ossicles of the ear in man with the elements of the suspensorium in the inferior vertebrates. And this adoption with the qualification referred to is, in our opinion, a not injudicious measure, as the views in question seem to be in accordance with embryological facts and best to account for the modifications which exist in the vertebrate series. But "if this interpretation be correct," we have an apt exemplification of the misleading tendencies engendered by an exclusive attention to the study of the structure of man, and especially from a physiological standpoint. In man the auditory ossicles, as implied by their name, are confined to the completion of the organ of hearing, while in the lower vertebrates the homologous elements are entirely removed from that organ, and act simply as a suspensor of the lower jaw; and as in the "Lessons" the auditory ossicles in man are treated of in connection with the nervous system, in order to institute a comparison with the homologous parts, we have to refer back to the chapter on the osteology of the skull.

* 'Lessons in Elementary Anatomy.' By St. George Mivart, F.R.S., etc. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.

Without dwelling upon other points, we may add that in the concluding chapter an excellent summary is given of the differences exhibited by man (in common with all mammals) from the fishes, the batrachians, the reptiles, and the birds, and, in his own class (in common with all placental mammals) from the monotremes and the marsupials; from the members of his own order; and lastly, and especially, from the higher apes. The chief fault we have to find with this summary is that the casual student might be apt to form an erroneous idea respecting the value of the thirty-five characters exhibited as contrasts between man and the higher apes, not being cautioned in the book itself, unless by the general statement that man "even differs far less from the higher apes than do these latter from the inferior forms of the same order." Still one might not be aware that the differences in all the points enumerated between representatives of the apes and monkeys were greater than those between *only* the highest apes and man. Moreover, as germane to the same question, we object to the concluding observation that man is separated from the inferior animals "by an abyss so vast that no chasm separating the other kingdoms of nature from one another can be compared with it." The work being *purely anatomical*, it is not evident what claim such an assertion has to a place in it. The assertion may or may not be true, but it is the expression of a dogma which, far from being the legitimate deduction of the facts set forth, is, as is to all intents admitted, opposed by them; and it should, accordingly, in the interest of good logic, be avoided in a work from which physiology and psychology are excluded, and which has as one of its missions to teach how to weigh facts. But having said this much, we can cordially commend the work as a whole. There are minor points respecting homologies and other questions upon which we are not of accord with the author, but most of these are still *sub judice*, and therefore not to be dogmatically treated of one way or the other. We need only add that the work is well printed in nearly the same style as Huxley's 'Lessons in Elementary Physiology,' and Flower's 'Introduction to the Osteology of the Mammalia,' issued by the same house, and many of the numerous illustrations will be recognized as old friends by readers familiar with those works. The sketch of classification of the vertebrates given in the first chapter is adopted, with a few inconsiderable modifications, from Huxley's 'Anatomy of Vertebrated Animals.'

The Medical and Surgical History of the War of the Rebellion (1861-65).

Prepared under the direction of Surgeon-General Joseph K. Barnes, U.S.A. Part I.: Surgical Volume; Medical Volume, with Appendix. (Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1870.)—In magnitude, this important work exceeds anything of the kind ever attempted; and naturally, as the materials were vaster. Not only, however, does it surpass in the scale and fulness of its statistics, but in their completeness, advantage having been taken of applications for pensions to trace, for a considerable period after their discharge from the service, the history of patients who would else have passed out of the knowledge of the medical department. This is a unique feature, and obviously of the highest value. A somewhat detailed account of the General Hospital system is promised in a third volume, to match these elegantly printed quartos, whose contents we can only briefly indicate. The Surgical Volume opens with a chronological summary, day by day, of engagements and battles during the Rebellion. This occupies 107 pages, and gives in parallel columns the locality, description of Union troops engaged, loss on both sides, with remarks and references to authorities; after which an index of places. The remaining space is devoted to the discussion of wounds in various parts of the body, a very large number of cases being reported in detail, in many instances alphabetically arranged, and in not a few illustrated either by woodcuts or by finely executed colored plates. It will be seen that, while this volume has a special instructiveness for the medical profession, it is not without interest for the general student and for a very wide class of readers. The same may be said still more emphatically of the Medical Volume. Here we have a vast array of tables of death and disease in the regular and volunteer forces for each month of the war, compiled with special reference to season and region, and agreeing very nearly with the military departments of the period. These the physician and sanitarian may ponder, while the lay reader will skip them in favor of the Introduction and of the Appendix.

The Introduction, dealing with some of the grand results of the statistical enquiry, essays to fix the total number of deaths caused by the war in the Union ranks. This leads to an interesting comparison of authorities. The Adjutant-General's office can, with absolute confidence, affirm the death of at least 303,504 soldiers (33,380 colored); the Quartermaster-General points to 313,555 (presumed) Union graves in the national cemeteries and elsewhere; while the Surgeon-General, with the poorest facilities of all for ascertaining the whole truth, can allege only 282,955. Very likely 315,000 is not too high an estimate for the total loss. We have next the killed in battle; ac-

cording to the Adjutant-General, 44,238; according to the Surgeon-General, 35,408. Here again the former is naturally the better authority. The Adjutant-General falls behind, however, in the number of deaths from wounds, 33,993 (Surgeon-General, 49,205); and from disease, 149,043 (Surgeon-General, 186,216). There were 526 suicides, homicides, and executions; and 24,184 deaths from unknown causes. Disease thus carried off twice as many victims as violence; or, in other words, of every three deaths from known causes, but one was due to violence. This ratio, however, is a very favorable one in a sanitary-historical point of view. The black troops lost more than three times as heavily by disease as the whites; the white regulars somewhat less so than the white volunteers. The tables, it is estimated, cover about nine-tenths of the class of facts intended to be embraced in them. They assign causes in 189,397 of the 223,535 recorded cases of discharge from the service (Adjutant-General, 285,545). Diarrhoea and dysentery were the most fatal diseases, "camp fever" coming next, and pneumonia third. Their death-roll embraces 82,497 whites and 16,688 colored soldiers—56 per cent. of the whole number of deaths from disease.

The Appendix has an historical value of a peculiar but really high order. It consists of extracts, or even full reproductions, of medical reports from all parts of the seat of war, which, while mainly concerned with the professional aspects of camp and field experience, often give graphic accounts of the engagements witnessed, the movements of troops, and of other events in regard to which no testimony might be thought so unbiased and truthful. No important campaign is here omitted, and, what materially assists the narratives, there is a liberal supply of good maps, either of particular battles or of the shifting theatre of the war. We will close our imperfect review of a work so creditable to American science and to the medical bureau of the War Department with a few extracts suggestive of the claims which this history has to a place in every library beside Draper's 'History of the Civil War' or Greeley's 'History of the American Conflict,' or the still better history of the great struggle as yet unwritten. Medical Director King reports, of the battle of the first Bull Run:

"On the morning of July 21, 1861, the General commanding, accompanied by his staff, passed at daylight through our columns, already moving in the direction of Bull Run, until he reached a point beyond Cub's Bridge. . . . Here we halted in the shade, as the day, even thus early, promised

to be one of the hottest of the season. While observing the troops passing, we discussed the prospects of the day before us. I perceived that our troops marched at double-quick, and some at a full run, while many, overcome by the heat, threw away their blankets and haversacks. I expressed my opinion to the General that, owing to their rapid movement, the men would be exhausted before they arrived at the scene of action. In this view he acquiesced, and directed the men not to run; but as the officers behind, from an idea that great haste was necessary, constantly repeated the command to close up, the troops were kept at a run a great part of the way. . . . As one of the causes of the Bull Run failure, I desire to record my belief that the exhaustion of our forces by the long and forced march contributed as much as anything else to the disasters of the day."

"My impression at the commencement of the battle was that there would be a brisk skirmish, and then the rebels would most probably fall back and take up a new position. I thought it would be a small task, therefore, to make out a list of the killed and wounded, and with note-book in hand I began to count the number of each. It is a singular fact that I observed near one hundred dead before one wounded!"

Here is Director McParlin's description of the battle of the Wilderness:

"As has been well said, 'this was a battle which no man saw or could see,' fought in the midst of dense thickets of second growth underbrush and evergreens, rendering the use of artillery almost impossible, and compelling the opposing lines to approach very near in order to see each other. It was a series of fierce attacks and repulses on either side, and the hostile lines swayed back and forth over a strip of ground two hundred yards to a mile in width, in which the severely wounded of both sides were scattered. This strip of woods was on fire in many places, and some of the wounded who were unable to escape were thus either suffocated or burned to death. The number who thus perished is unknown, but it is supposed to have been about two hundred. . . . The proportion of officers wounded was very large, being one to every sixteen enlisted men. This was due to the fact that the conflict partook of the character of skirmishing on a large scale, and those who were the most conspicuously dressed were the first victims. For a similar reason, the Zouave brigade of the First Division, Fifth Corps, whose uniforms were braided with red and yellow scrolls, met with a very heavy loss. The relative proportion of killed was also large, being nearly one to every five wounded. Only two hundred and forty wounded from cannon shot and shell were observed. As a somewhat interesting fact bearing upon the character of the conflict, it may be mentioned that it is stated by the chief ordnance officer that but eleven rounds of ammunition per man were used by the army during the three days' fight."

GERMAN AND FRENCH

HOLT & WILLIAMS,

25 BOND STREET, NEW YORK,

Publish most of the

TEXT-BOOKS

used at YALE, HARVARD, and many other prominent American Institutions. Correspondence is invited from educators and students.

DODD & MEAD

Have Just Received Part II. of

THE BIRDS OF FLORIDA.

By C. J. MAYNARD.

Containing original descriptions of 250 species, with plates drawn and colored from Nature. To be completed in twelve parts, each \$1, or \$10 in advance for the whole work.

THE AMERICAN NATURALIST

FOR APRIL.

DODD & MEAD, 762 Broadway.

Agents for the publications of the Peabody Academy of Science and Naturalists' Agency, Salem, Mass.

COMPLETION OF
ROBERTSON'S CHURCH HISTORY.

A History of the Christian Church, Vol. IV.

(A.D. 1303-1517.)

BY JAMES C. ROBERTSON, M.A.,

Professor of Ecclesiastical History in King's College, London. 8vo, cloth, price \$8.

The three previous volumes, price \$22 the set. Free on receipt of price.

POTT, YOUNG & CO.,
Cooper Union, New York.

HARPER'S CATALOGUE. The attention of those designing to form libraries, or increase their Literary Collections, is respectfully invited to Harper's Catalogue, which comprises a large proportion of the standard and most esteemed works in English Literature—comprehending over three thousand volumes.

Librarians, who may not have access to a trustworthy guide in forming the true estimate of literary productions, will find this Catalogue especially valuable for reference.

The Catalogue is arranged alphabetically by the authors' names, anonymous works by their titles. The index is arranged by the titles of the books, besides having numerous appropriate heads, each general head being followed by the titles of all works on that subject.

Harper's Catalogue sent by mail on receipt of six cents.

Address HARPER & BROTHERS,
Franklin Square, New York.

PUBLISHED THIS DAY.

The great Novel of the season, "Ouida's" New Work.

PASCAREL.

BY "OUIDA,"

Author of 'Strathmore,' 'Idalia,' 'Under Two Flags,' 'Tricotrin,' 'Puck,' etc. 12mo, fine cloth, \$2.

"Ouida's" pen is a graphic one, and page after page of gorgeous word-painting flows from it in a smooth, melodious rhythm that often has the perfect measure of blank verse, and needs only to be broken into lines."—*Philadelphia Evening Bulletin*.

For sale by all Booksellers, or will be sent by mail, post-paid, upon receipt of the price by

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO., Publishers.

715 and 717 Market Street, Philadelphia.

CARMINA YALENSIA. A Collection of the Songs of Yale College, with Music. 8vo, extra cloth, tinted paper \$1.50.

Also nearly ready.

CARMINA PRINCETONIA. A full Collection of Princeton College Songs, with Music. 8vo, cloth, heavy tinted paper, \$1.75.

TAINTOR BROTHERS, PUBLISHERS,
678 Broadway, New York.

MACMILLAN & CO.'S
PUBLICATIONS.

A TREATISE ON ELECTRICITY and Magnetism. By J. Clerk Maxwell, M.A., F.R.S., Professor of Experimental Physics in the University of Cambridge. 2 vols. 8vo, cloth, \$12.

THE DEPTHS OF THE SEA. By C. Wyville Thomson, F.R.S., Director of the Scientific Staff of the Challenger Expedition. 8vo, cloth, extra gilt, with nearly 100 illustrations, and eight colored maps and plans, \$9.

"Nothing can be more complete than the account of the scientific results of these voyages, which are fully illustrated by woodcuts of the strange forms of life brought from the dark depths of the ocean, by charts of soundings, and elaborate tables of the deep-sea temperatures. The book is another admirable example of that mingling of literary interest with scientific completeness and value which is the only true form of what is called 'the popularization of science.'"—*Daily News* (London).

SECOND SERIES OF HISTORICAL ESSAYS. By Edward A. Freeman, M.A., D.C.L., author of 'The History of the Norman Conquest.' Crown 8vo, \$2.50.

"He has not only thoroughly comprehended the character of the men of whom he writes, and is as familiar with their lives as though they were the statesmen of yesterday, but he writes of them in English so pure and forcible, with reverence for political and private morality so strong and healthy, that the reader is not only interested, but is also compelled to admire the writer, and to recognize in him the instructor of the same admirable qualities which made Arnold at once the most brilliant and satisfactory of English historians."—*N. Y. Times*.

THE SCIENTIFIC BASES OF FAITH. By Joseph John Murphy, author of 'Habit and Intelligence' 8vo, cloth, \$5.

OLD-FASHIONED ETHICS AND Common-Sense Metaphysics. With some of their Applications. By William Thomas Thornton, author of 'A Treatise on Labor.' 8vo, cloth, \$3.50.

MACMILLAN & CO.,

38 Bleecker Street, New York.

THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

APRIL 21, 1873.

THE report of the Grand Jury of their investigations touching the violations of the usury law bids fair to bring to an end the agonizing condition of things in the money market. After the examination of a number of bankers and brokers, the substance of the Jury report on Thursday was that they had failed to trace the reason of the present stringency in the money market to a so-called lock-up of money or to any special cause; that the law is absurd and unpopular to such an extent that not a man can be found to aid the authorities in discovering its infractions; that the enormous rates which have so long been paid in this city are almost entirely due to the existence of such laws; that special charters have been granted to several corporations authorizing them to take commissions above legal interest on their loans of money, thus legalizing in special cases the very thing the usury laws were intended to prevent; and that the enormous rates paid by stock speculators have had the effect of drawing the capital of the city from its legitimate channels, thus preventing merchants from obtaining money at moderate rates such as ordinary business men can stand. The report closes with the following sensible recommendation which was sent to Albany by a special committee on Friday:

"For these reasons and many others which might be mentioned touching the best interests of this city and the State, this Grand Jury hereby recommend to the Legislature of the State the immediate repeal of the usury laws, or such a modification of them, so far as they relate to the city and county of New York, as will permit money to come here from other places and countries, and be employed legally, or equalizing the rate of interest with other great monetary centres."

The publication of the above report had the immediate effect of making money comparatively easy; rates falling from $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on Thursday to $\frac{1}{8}$ on Friday, the day of the publication of the report. On Saturday, $\frac{1}{2}$ and interest was the highest rate, and it was freely loaned at 7 per cent. per annum before the day closed. During the week rates ranged as follows: $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, and $\frac{1}{16}$ of 1 per cent. on Monday; $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, and $\frac{1}{16}$ of 1 per cent. on Tuesday; $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{8}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{3}{4}$ of 1 per cent. on Wednesday; $\frac{3}{8}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ down to 7 per cent. gold per annum in the afternoon, Thursday; $\frac{1}{8}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ in the morning, and $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, and 7 per cent. gold in the afternoon, Friday; and on Saturday the rates were 7 per cent. per annum to $\frac{1}{2}$ and interest, closing easy at the legal rate at 3 P.M. At the close of the week, the indications are in every way favorable for easy money in the future, or at least until the commencement of the usual fall stringency. Still there may be further disturbance until legal tenders constitute a larger part of the remittances from the interior than they have heretofore. The bank statement is favorable, but the reserve is not sufficiently increased to take the banks up to or above the legal requirement.

The total liabilities are increased \$267,000, and the reserve shows an increase of \$1,102,100. The banks hold \$83,950 in specie and legal tenders less than the 25 per cent. required by law, a gain of \$1,041,350, which places the National banks above the required reserve, and leaves the deficiency to be divided amongst the State banks. The following are the statements for the past two weeks:

	April 13.	April 19.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$271,516,900	\$270,190,600	Dec. \$1,326,300
Specie.....	16,134,300	16,116,400	Dec. 17,900
Circulation.....	27,714,400	27,713,300	Dec. 1,100
Deposits.....	186,899,200	187,167,300	Inc. 268,100
Legal tenders.....	35,493,800	36,619,800	Inc. 1,126,000

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	April 12.	April 19.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$16,134,300	\$16,116,400	Dec. \$17,900
Legal tenders.....	35,493,800	36,619,800	Inc. 1,126,000
Total reserve.....	\$51,628,100	\$52,736,200	Inc. \$1,108,100
Circulation.....	27,714,400	27,713,300	Dec. 1,100
Deposits.....	186,899,200	187,167,300	Inc. 268,100
Total liabilities.....	\$214,613,600	\$214,880,600	Inc. 267,000
25 per cent. reserve.....	53,653,400	53,720,150	Dec. 66,750
Deficiency in legal reserve.....	2,025,300	983,950	Dec. 1,041,350

OFFICE OF FISK & HATCH,
No. 5 Nassau Street, New York, April 21st, 1873.
THE SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS OF THE CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO RAILROAD COMPANY, being secured by a First Mortgage on a COMPLETED Road—which is one of the GREAT EAST AND WEST TRUNK LINES, commanding a large through business, and which, from the immense Mineral, Agricultural, and other valuable resources of the country it traverses, is assured of a very remunerative local

traffic—are among the most substantial and satisfactory investment securities in the market; and, at the present price, $87\frac{1}{2}$ and accrued interest, yield a liberal rate of interest on their cost.

They are in denominations of \$100, \$500, and \$1,000, coupon and registered; principal and interest payable in gold coin in New York; interest May and November.

We buy and sell at current market rates the WESTERN PACIFIC SIX PER CENT. GOLD BONDS

originally negotiated by us, and now quoted at the Stock Exchange, and widely known as favorite securities in the principal money market. Coupon Bonds of \$1,000; principal and interest payable in gold in New York; interest January and July. Price to-day, $94\frac{1}{2}$ to 95.

We also buy and sell GOVERNMENT and CENTRAL PACIFIC BONDS, receive deposits, on which we allow interest, make collections, and do a general banking business.

FISK & HATCH.

The following statement separates the National from the State banks:

	National.	State.	Total.
Loans.....	\$232,963,200	\$37,227,400	\$270,190,600
Specie.....	14,706,500	1,409,900	16,116,400
Legal tenders.....	22,523,200	4,086,600	26,619,800
Deposits.....	161,083,200	26,084,100	187,167,300
Circulation.....	27,670,300	43,000	27,713,300

The stock market has been very active and the fluctuations wide, but hardly anything like a panic has occurred, notwithstanding what has been said by the daily papers, and but three failures of any importance have taken place among Stock Exchange firms. Several brokers are in trouble, but they are parties who generally become embarrassed by reason of overtrading and a reckless style of transacting business about twice a year. The lowest prices were made Wednesday afternoon and Thursday morning, as will be seen by reference to the table of prices published below. The greatest fall was in Union Pacific and Western Union Telegraph, caused by one of the firms who failed having been loaded up with these two stocks, and the majority of the sales at low prices on Wednesday were for their account. Report says that a prominent operator who suffered severely in the late North-Western corner was a large seller at the lowest prices of the week, and that his losses have been greater than those of any one in the "trade." The entire market rallied on Thursday afternoon, and the easier money market of Friday and Saturday imparted a buoyancy to everything, the market finally closing at about the highest prices of the week. The investment stocks shared in the general improvement of the speculative stocks, New Jersey Central being in demand at 99 to 99 $\frac{1}{2}$, Iron Mountain at 90, and Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western at 99.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending April 19, 1873:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales Sh's
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100% 102	100% 102	97% 101	98% 101	99% 101	100% 102	191,400
Lake Shore.....	91% 91	89% 91	88% 91	89% 91	90% 92	92% 93	123,900
Erie.....	65% 65	64% 65	63% 64	63% 64	64% 65	66% 66	52,300
Do. pld.....	74 74	74% 74	74% 74	73% 73	74 75	75% 75	77,700
Union Pacific.....	38% 38	32% 32	25 32	28% 32	31% 32	32% 33	11,700
Chi. & N. W.	86 86	85% 85	85% 85	83 85	84% 84	84% 84	2,000
Do. pld.....	86 86	88% 88	97 98	96% 97	97% 99	99% 99	1,000
N. J. Central.....	98 98	98% 98	97 98	96% 97	97% 99	99% 99	73,200
Rock Island.....	108 108	106% 106	104% 104	104% 106	105% 106	106% 106	61,700
Mil. & St. Paul.....	58% 58	55% 55	54 54	54% 55	54% 55	55% 56	4,900
Do. pld.....	73 73	73 73	71 71	68% 71	70% 72	72% 73	25,700
Wabash.....	69% 70	67% 70	62 68	63 67	65% 68	65% 69	3,500
D. L. & Western.....	99 99	98% 98	98 98	95 96	95 96	97% 97	2,000
B. H. & Erie.....	3% 4%	3% 4%	3% 4%	3% 3%	3% 3%	3% 3%	22,000
O. & M.....	44% 45	4% 45	40% 45	40% 42	42% 44	44% 44	77,200
C. C. & I. C.....	38% 39	38% 40	35% 39	35% 38	36% 38	38% 39	42,200
W. U. Tel.....	84% 86	83% 86	78 84	77% 82	80 85	85% 87	535,900
Pacific Mail.....	56% 57	56 58	53% 56	53% 56	55% 59	59% 60	197,900

The Treasury purchased no 5-20's last week. The Government bond market has been quite active, and the fluctuations have been of importance. Considerable sales of bonds were made early in the week by parties desiring to raise money, and the repurchasing of them later in the week caused a rise in the whole list, and developed a great scarcity of bonds. The shipments since the first of the present year amount to something like \$20,000,000, and the demand from the foreign bankers continues.

The high rates for money have made business in State and railroad bonds exceedingly dull. Prices have changed but little, and, with the improved condition of the money market, it is fair to count upon higher prices for investment securities of all kinds.

The State of Alabama is adopting a strange mode of paying her debts. The latest news is that the Legislature has passed a law to take up the different railroad bonds guaranteed by the State. The law provides that bonds of the State be given for the guaranteed railroad bonds in the proportion of \$1,000 of the former for \$4,000 of the latter.

The gold market has been active, the price ranging between the extremes 117 and 119 $\frac{1}{2}$. The closing price on Saturday was 117 $\frac{1}{4}$, against 118 $\frac{1}{2}$, the opening price on Monday morning. About \$500,000 gold was shipped to this city from London last week, the dullness of the market for, and low price of, sterling bills making the shipment a profitable transaction.

The specie shipments from this port for the week ending April 19 amount to \$42,603, mostly in silver. The total shipments since January 1, 1873, amount to \$16,348,423, against \$7,471,715 in 1872, \$20,001,692 in 1871, \$7,324,944 in 1870, \$10,345,166 in 1869, and \$20,611,866 in 1868.

